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THE NEW ERA

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Editorial

In 1984, the most significant event for the WEF will be the Fellowship's international biennial conference, to be hosted by the Dutch section (details on p25). In a time of mounting concern over crises in international relationships it is important to maintain longer term educational and cultural perspectives. We cannot affect the immediate sources of crisis, but we can — and must — keep up the quest for educative alternatives to confrontation. Our search is for ways and means, through education, of achieving a more just and humane world where personal fulfilment becomes a reality for all. That is very far from being the case at present.

The theme of the 1984 WEF conference is Who Needs the Arts? The Necessity of the Arts in Education for International Understanding and Peace. This is being addressed in successive issues of *The New Era*. Maurice Plaskow, in the present issue, underlines the role of the arts as they relate to the broader and more fundamental aims of education. These are just the aims which are liable to be lost in view as pressures on scarce resources increase and instrumental doctrines about education gain currency.

Educational idealism and far-sightedness may seem frail vessels in the overall international environment. Just how successful they can be, however, is shown by Brian Simon in his Raymond King Memorial Lecture which, slightly amended, we publish in full. The lecture, given in London on November 3 1983, was sponsored by the ENEF and the Wandsworth Rotary Club, and was chaired by the chairman of the ENEF, Dr William Taylor. Brian Simon traces the interplay over fifty years between the vision, and hard work, of Raymond King and the forces of educational action and reaction in English secondary education. The central issue was the creation of a comprehensive system of maintained secondary education and the article gives a unique insight into one of the crucial shifts in modern education in this country. Simon also points up an unfinished agenda for the continuing reform of secondary education.

Barry Taylor, Chief Education Officer of Somerset LEA, reviews the problems education authorities in Britain are facing as they seek to maintain

standards of public education and to support and foster change. The role of the LEA is itself changing, but, as he says, there is a leadership responsibility of a peculiarly difficult kind arising from the interplay between expenditure constraints and the school curriculum. In this interplay, the LEA is a key factor — for good or ill. The Raymond Kings of the future, therefore, will need to be found as often among educational administrators, policy makers, and developers as among schools people.

We are pleased to publish a response, from James Breese, to earlier articles on school examination and assessment, and to have Antony Weaver's appraisal of Oxfam's Educational Development Unit in Oxfordshire. Both articles spring from the kinds of practical efforts in educational reform which *The New Era* has always sought to publicise.

Desmond Davey, one of Australia's most distinguished school principals, joins the Editorial Board as Associate Editor, Australasia and the Pacific. Until recently foundation principal of an outstandingly successful all-age co-educational school in Victoria, Desmond starts his work with us, appropriately enough, by reviewing Jonathan Croall's biography of A. S. Neill.

We publish also a South African view of a British book on one of the most inflammable issues of our time — apartheid. Owen van den Berg casts a critical gaze at the politics of separation and its challenge to education.

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Secondary Education for all in the 1980s: The Challenge to the Comprehensive School

Brian Simon

Editor's Note: This is the edited text of the ENEF Raymond King Memorial Lecture, given in London on 3rd November 1983 by Emeritus Professor Brian Simon. Professor Simon is editor of *Forum*, of whose editorial board Raymond King was chairman for 20 years. An appreciation of Raymond, focussed on his work with the ENEF and WEF, appeared in *The New Era* Vol. 64 No. 3.

This lecture is designed to serve a dual purpose — both as a tribute to Raymond King, Headmaster of Wandsworth School for some 30 years, and, as a friend who taught at that school put it recently, a hero of comprehensive education; and as a retrospective study of the whole movement for secondary education for all. I will close with a look at the present challenge to comprehensive education, in terms of the realisation of the concept embodied in that historic slogan. These two themes are, of course, closely interwoven, since Raymond's active life spanned the initial conception, gestation and finally the realisation of comprehensive education — still only partial, of course, in terms of early ideals and objectives, but now covering 90% of all students of secondary school age in the maintained sector in England — rather more in Wales, and nearly 100 per cent in Scotland. Insofar as Raymond devoted his energy, both as a practitioner (and a highly professional one) and as a theoretician to this cause for some 50 years, this must be assessed a considerable achievement — and a worthy memorial for one who was a leading pioneer in this whole movement. Given the criticism now being made of these, the nation's schools, often by interested parties who have their own axes to grind, this is also a convenient time to recall why it was that men and women like Raymond, stemming precisely from the grammar school, selective tradition, developed, on the basis of their own experience, their own independent outlook, and so were among the first to see the need to transform these schools, serving only some 25 per cent of the

secondary school population, into schools serving the entire local community.

1. Early life

Born on Christmas Day in 1897, the son of a railwayman in the north of England, Raymond attended a local grammar school, leaving at the age of 18, in 1916, to join the army. His army record is extraordinary, considering his youth; being awarded both the Military Medal and the Distinguished Conduct Medal (neither in any sense lightly given) and in addition the Belgian Croix de Guerre presented to him by a Belgian general on the field of battle. Raymond, who, like another famous protagonist of secondary education for all, R. H. Tawney, refused to be commissioned as an officer, preferring to remain among the men, finished up, at the ripe age of 20, as a Company Sergeant Major.

The years immediately after World War One were years of educational ferment. In 1921 an official all party Parliamentary committee concluded that 75% of the nation's children were capable of profiting from secondary education, and that they should have it. In 1922 there appeared Tawney's famous pamphlet, *Secondary Education for All*, which articulated a generous conception — and a clear policy — as to how all young people might be provided for in a variety of secondary schools, all under the *secondary* (rather than the elementary) code of regulations. The publication of this pamphlet effectively set the agenda for educational discussion and action over the next twenty years and more.

In that year, Raymond was aged 24. His work experience behind him, he was studying at Cambridge University, working for his degree, and shortly to go on to the one year course of professional training in the Education Department there. Can one doubt that Tawney's publication and the discussions around it, already made an impression on Raymond King and his fellow students? This, in any case, was the context of his early

olvement, as a would-be and trainee teacher, at formative period of his life. And this discussion, of course, continued throughout the twenties with the publication of the Hadow report of 1926, *The Education of the Adolescent*, which again argued that all pupils over eleven should experience post-primary, or secondary education.

Raymond's teaching practice was done at Westminster School under the supervision of the Rev H. St. John White, the headmaster, who himself has his place in the history of education¹.

Raymond was appointed, in Autumn that year (1923) as English and History master at Portsmouth Grammar School. Three years later, in 1926, he became head of Scarborough High (or Grammar) School, at the very young age of 28. Six years later, in 1932, Raymond, appointed head of Wandsworth Grammar School, took up the post in which he was to make history some 25 years later, as one of the first grammar schools to be deliberately transformed into a fully comprehensive school.

In a retrospective article written in 1979, in *Education Today*, Raymond looks back over this period. When appointed a grammar school head in 1926, he writes, secondary schools had expanded from taking only a few children to catering for a quarter of all children in the maintained system. The Hadow Committee was 'on the point of' presenting its report foreshadowing 'secondary education for all'. This was brought about by the 1944 Act, but,

The schools which had led the great expansion drew aside from the main stream of secondary development, to their own loss and that of the nation. The local authority grammar schools, clinging to the prestige of the independent and semi-independent sector, were mostly brought in too late, too inexperienced in the new order, and too half-hearted to give any effective lead in the comprehensive system. Comprehensive education has remained incomplete, and with strong grammar school elements still outside, has not yet won the confidence of a considerable section of the indestructible middle classes.²

The great interest in Raymond's life (to the historian) is how it was that he, steeped as he was in the grammar school tradition, early became so convinced and resolute an exponent of the comprehensive school, as the essential organisational means through which the objective of secondary edu-

cation for all must be realised. Although a few others took the same road, Raymond stands out uniquely as the leader of this movement; one which was essential if comprehensive education was to be developed as a truly national system.

2. Towards the single or multilateral school

To understand this we must look back to the 1930s. The movement for the single secondary school, then known variously as the multilateral or, more usually, the multi-bias school, dates back earlier than that, to the late 1920s. It is often forgotten that there was a groundswell of professional opinion in the '30s in favour of the single secondary school, clearly exemplified in the evidence given to the Spens Committee, not least by the grammar school associations. The Association of Assistant Mistresses, for instance, came down heavily for the multi-bias school, conceived in a flexible, multi-track, or 'many-sided' concept. Raymond's own association, the Incorporated Association of Head Masters, also supported this idea, as did the National Union of Teachers. The TUC and other Labour movement organisations took the same view. Because of the apparent unanimity of these views, it is perhaps not surprising that the Spens Committee devoted its very first chapter to explaining why the multilateral school did not find favour with them (except in sparsely populated areas), so clearing the way for their recommendation for the establishment of secondary technical schools alongside grammar and senior (or modern) schools, though of course all under the secondary code; in fact the tripartite system with which we are all familiar³.

Raymond himself puts the point. In the late '30s the grammar schools were experiencing the problem of the C stream — the alienated, early leavers who formed quite a proportion of the pupils in these schools, some of them, of course, fee payers. Outside the grammar schools were the junior technical schools, a success story, then developing appropriate curricula for students aged 13 to 16 and apparently retaining their enthusiasm and involvement. Then again, some central and senior schools were now beginning to develop successfully five-year courses, from 11 to 16. So, writes, Raymond, the multilateral idea now found support from secondary, or grammar schools heads⁴. Hence their evidence to Spens. Nor must we forget the radi-

calisation of many teachers, grammar and other, under the impact of the searing national and international events of those days — in particular, the rise of fascism in Germany and the consequent threat to democracy. How to educate for a renewed democratic society was undoubtedly a main motivation for the stance Raymond took up.

3. Democracy and educational reconstruction

In the late 1930s in London a group of heads began meeting regularly to discuss education at greater depth and with a freedom for which IAHM meetings were not conducive. We should recall that, in 1936, when Labour first won control of the London County Council as it then was, a special joint committee (elementary and secondary), presided over by Barbara Drake (a niece of Beatrice Webb's), after very thorough discussions, advocated the establishment of 'a new type of school', large enough to provide within its four walls most, if not all, of the activities now carried on in existing types of post-primary school⁵. Although under the then regulations, this was impossible of achievement, from this point on the establishment of the comprehensive secondary school was on the agenda. Raymond's school, we should remember, was in the LCC area.

It is at this stage, from the late '30s, that Raymond begins activity on this issue. Evacuated at the outbreak of war, a group of four like-minded grammar school heads continued the meetings begun earlier in London. As the war proceeded there was, of course, a ferment of discussion about education, culminating in the White Paper of 1943 and the Act of 1944. Into this, Raymond and his three colleagues, still known at Gordon Square (headquarters of the IAHM) as 'The Four Horsemen of the Apocalypse', entered with vibrant energy. In 1942 their 15,000-word pamphlet, entitled **A Democratic Reconstruction of Education**, was published and widely circulated. This led to the foundation of an organisation, the Conference for the Reconstruction of Education, or CDRE for short, of which Raymond was Chairman. At the inaugural meeting the main speaker was H. C. Dent, then the influential editor of the **Times Educational Supplement**. The Chairman of the Education Committee of the LCC was also present. A committee was elected including grammar school heads, teachers, professors of education (Cavenagh and Barnard), LEA inspec-

tors and others. Campaigning now got under way with a vengeance. This, writes Raymond, 'continued from 1942 to 1946, and, as Chairman of CDRE, I found myself in lively debate in various parts of the country, most often at what proved later to be trouble spots'⁶.

What was Raymond's (and CDRE's) standpoint at that time? Democracy, he argued, is the highest form of government. But the educational system itself is highly undemocratic. Tinkering is not enough. What is required is a fundamental educational reform as the foundation of a new democracy.

The strongest criticism is reserved for the public schools. These perpetuate social schism and inequality of opportunity; they stand in the way of the construction of a truly national system. Furthermore, these schools failed the country in the inter-war period, when they signally failed to provide effective leadership. The public schools, CDRE (and Raymond) argued should be 'absorbed' into the state system; the greater schools should be developed as vocational colleges for students over 18, the lesser brought into local systems where their boarding facilities could be used rationally and equitably. CDRE's later evidence to the Fleming Committee was equally radical and just as outspoken. 'On the publication of that report', Raymond wrote in 1979, 'CDRE sent its powerful and cogent counterblast to every Member of Parliament'⁷. Raymond never modified his outlook on this crucial question.

The second major issue dealt with was the pattern of secondary schooling as a whole. The pamphlet argued for a 'radical solution'. Secondary education should be provided for all from 11 to 16. Separate types of school — secondary, junior technical, trade, central and senior — should be abolished in favour of 'a new and larger secondary school for all'; this should be conceived as an 'educational community' rather than as a school. Raymond claims in his 1979 article that the pamphlet, which spelt out in some detail how such a school should be organised, was 'the first professionally conceived blueprint of what later came to be called the comprehensive school'⁸. The claim is, I think, well-founded.

The school, the pamphlet argued, should be an example of democracy in action, with much devotion to staff and students; parents and the local community must be involved and a genuine com-

unity spirit built up — all characteristics later embodied in Wandsworth School when it went comprehensive. Interchange should be arranged with students from other countries to help further international spirit and understanding. Generally we see here the concept of the comprehensive school taking shape in the minds of the most advanced grammar school heads of that time.

Progressive currents

There is so much that might be said about this period. It appears to be the time when Raymond first made fruitful contact with the New Education Fellowship, to which he made an enormous contribution, especially after retirement, a contribution which unfortunately lies outside the scope of this feature. In 1941 (or 1942) H. G. Stead, Chief Education Officer at Chesterfield and an extraordinarily farsighted educationalist, became secretary of the NEF; and this contributed to a shift in the focus of that organisation towards direct concern with the state system and its development at a crucial historical moment. The NEF and CDRE now organised joint conferences on the future of education; their reactions to the White Paper (1943) and to the Fleming Committee were very similar and equally radical. In 1950 the ENEF published what was, I think, the first pamphlet to be devoted entirely to 'the comprehensive school' — and this is its title. Of this pamphlet, writes Raymond, 'I am the innominate author'.

Here we should pause a moment and take stock, for this was a crucial period. On 1st August 1944 the plan for comprehensive schools was first adopted by the London County Council. Three years later, in 1947, the LCC adopted the fully elaborated **London School Plan**. This was approved by the Ministry of Education in February 1950. In an article in the first number of *Forum* in the Autumn of 1958, Raymond writes that: 'The most momentous educational feature of the plan was the bold and imaginative conception of reorganising secondary education in a system of comprehensive schools'. The plan proposed a total of 103 such schools, of which 67 were to be planned as county schools, and the rest as the so-called 'county complements', the London solution to the existence of so many voluntary aided schools which, under the 1902 Act, could not themselves be extended as fully comprehensive schools⁹.

The adoption of the plan, according to Raymond, was accompanied by 'violent attacks, which tended to blur the educational issues', but, he adds, the LCC was toughened rather than tamed by this. Nevertheless, the London comprehensive schools 'have had to make their way against much bitter opposition'¹⁰. In Raymond among others, they found a formidable protagonist: highly experienced, deeply professional, articulate. Of this period, teacher-educator Eric Linfield writes that when a student, he conceived a great admiration for Raymond 'for his forceful presentation of the case for comprehensive schools just after the war when I heard him speak at the London University Institute of Education on several occasions'¹¹.

With post-war building restrictions it was not possible to go ahead with purpose-built comprehensive schools until the early 1950s; but things were kept moving with the establishment of eight 'interim' schools in 1947. No grammar schools were involved. Raymond, however, formed part of this group of heads which met for discussions since, in that year, Wandsworth was asked to take over the London-based complement of the evacuated junior technical section of the Brixton School of Building. Here, then, was an earnest of what was to come. Raymond himself, anxious to push ahead, submitted at this stage two plans to the LCC proposing the formation of comprehensive schools through the grouping of existing schools; due to what was then known as 'the bulge', and consequent lack of resources, neither could be implemented.

5. The Comprehensive School: NEF 1950

We may take the NEF 1950 pamphlet as embodying Raymond's concept of secondary education for all, within the comprehensive school — one which he later set out to implement at Wandsworth¹². Referring to the heat and rancour of the discussion (among others he had Eric James's condemnation in mind) he argued that the comprehensive school should be considered primarily as an **educational** issue. Secondary education for all implied a revolution in English education. What was needed was a total revision of curricula and a new spirit of enterprise and adventure among the staff.

A strong argument is developed in the pamphlet against the perpetuation of a hierarchy of schools within the state system. In place of the segregation

this entails, students should be offered a common educational experience as a means to social unity. Selection, he says, implies rejection; if we get rid of this the general level of attainment will rise. Education is seen as a function of society, and Raymond develops the concept of the educative society which seems to closely follow the ideas of Fred Clarke, whom, of course, he knew well through the NEF. Only the comprehensive school, he argued, can develop an organic relationship with the community which must be closely involved with the school.

The pamphlet argues strongly for the large school, big enough to allow a variety of differentiated courses. Such schools should be established over a period by separate schools gradually growing together rather than through what he calls a 'catastrophic merger'. The first two years should form a separately organised Lower School, seen as a diagnostic period, when all follow a largely common curriculum or core. During this period there would be much flexibility of organisation and a focus on group work. Towards the end of this period the pupils would be 'self-selected' (Raymond's words) for a variety of courses in the Main School (13 to 18). Raymond's conception of this was of a school in which there would be no segregation by 'types' — that is, he rejected the multi-lateral idea; instead all students would follow a common core of studies offered within a wide variety of courses. The common core would be constructed around first, areas relating to the individual's personal needs, and second, those relating to the claims of society. For students aged 13 to 15 streaming was rejected in favour of banding and setting related to the variety of courses and directions offered. Technical education should be embodied in the curriculum for all, conceived as a component of a liberal culture rather than as a utilitarian study, sixth form studies should be broadened and liberalised comprising three elements: first, study of specific disciplines; second, general studies; and third, general background, or what he called 'recognition' knowledge.

As far as social organisation is concerned, Raymond had already pioneered the tutor system when at Scarborough in the '20s. The pamphlet argues the case for tutor groups across ages and for houses within the school, a pattern which has become very familiar. The pamphlet finished with a section on

the school directorate which percipiently identifies the new role of the head of such a school — the need for delegation, team work and co-operation; the respective roles of the Staff Council and what he called 'the Cabinet', and the nature of student participation. The comprehensive school, Raymond concludes, may not be the final solution; eventually we may arrive at a new conception of the school as a function of the community. It could be seen, however, as a step along that road.

6. Wandsworth School and the Comprehensive debate

We now turn to the transition to comprehensive education at Wandsworth itself. This was a planned and deliberate process which was spread over several years until, as Raymond put it later, the new, fully comprehensive school 'slipped into gear from the first morning' in its new, purpose-built buildings in the Autumn of 1956. It is worth remembering that, a year earlier, there were only 16 comprehensive schools in the entire country. Today, in England alone, there are nearly 3,500. Raymond always paid tribute to the LCC for the great degree of autonomy they allowed their heads. 'No doctrine', he wrote, on his retirement in 1964, 'No blueprint, no directives — apart from the initial conditions ("Unselected entry", "Balanced Intake", "Delimited Area") designed to make the new schools as comprehensive as possible in a non-comprehensive field...'; it was 'the highest tribute ever paid by an education authority to its teachers: to leave them virtually free to build up the great comprehensives in the way they judged best. Hence the exciting variety of organisational patterns, both scholastic and social, in the London schools, and the immense range of experience they have collectively accumulated in the last ten years'.

In reply to an enquiry from the secretary of his professional organisation in the same year (1964), Raymond again stressed this point, adding that he had, of course, the option of objecting to the plans for his school; that he could have deliberately stirred up parental and local feeling in a campaign to 'save the grammar school', and that, had he done so, the Ministry of Education would have backed him, as had been the case with the Eltham Hill Girls' High School, the Bec Grammar School, and Strand. The early fifties was, of course, a time when opposition to comprehensive education under that

precise slogan was widespread, the Minister herself, Florence Horsbrough, disallowing the integration of a maintained local authority grammar school as part of Kidbrooke, London's first purpose-built comprehensive school. This is partly the historic importance of schools like Wandsworth, its sister school Mayfield under Margaret Miles, Holloway, Parliament Hill and Sydenham, which were the first London grammar schools to take this road. This was the time when London certainly led the country in the transition to comprehensive education.

But, Raymond goes on in his long memo to the official, he did not take that road. On the contrary, as early as 1947 he had agreed to take over the senior technical branch of the Brixton School of Building 'voluntarily, and not under pressure'. From 1948 he had agreed to a gradual expansion recruiting first one, then two, and finally in 1955 three non-grammar forms at 11-plus, and re-naming the technical branch as a two-form entry instead of the original four to accommodate the new 11-plus entry. All this, he writes, 'was my own plan, not enforced, or even suggested, by County Hall'. He also planned the courses — a total of 14 with eight languages; set up the tutorial and house systems of social organisation, and designed the new management hierarchy consisting of a deputy head and four 'Principal Masters'. Further, though against LCC policy, he established his separate 11 and 13 Lower School, built in a building and engineering bias in the third year, and persuaded the authority to modify the recruitment scheme so that the three schools serving the local area, Mayfield, Wandsworth and Elliott, were available to all by choice, so giving the option of a boys' school, a girls' school and a mixed school. True to his ideals, Raymond took the initiative in 1955, when the three comprehensives were on the point of opening, gaining community involvement through setting up his 'School and Community' organisation involving parents and many interested local people and organisations. He wrote, in 1979, 'Parental opinion had been carried with us over the gradual expansion; so that when the anti-comprehensive movement started up in Wandsworth, it fell completely flat'¹³.

The grammar school which had expanded to become comprehensive', Raymond wrote in 1958, 'now finds itself where it should be: it is an integral

part of a complete secondary service providing wider opportunities for its pupils without any deterioration in standards'. The comprehensive school involves 'far-reaching changes, not only in administration and organisation, but in the whole conception of the nature and purposes of education at the secondary stage'. 'To teach in a London comprehensive', he added, 'is an exhilarating and, it must be added, a strenuous experience'¹⁴.

This may be seen now as the heroic period of the London comprehensives. The new system was on the point of beginning its breakthrough. In Coventry, Glasgow, Anglesey; in the new towns, and in isolated areas all over the country the new schools were getting off the ground. In 1958 the Leicestershire Plan was launched in two areas in the county, providing a new model of the two-tier school. All over the country local authorities were now discussing or planning the transition, though with no encouragement either from the Ministry or the Government of the day — rather the opposite. Wandsworth, like others, was overwhelmed with visitors. Within the school the excitement of the new venture was everywhere apparent. Roy Waters, appointed to Wandsworth in 1954, remembers: 'the staffroom frequently half full of young teachers excitedly talking shop at six in the evening when the school keeper (an appointment as happy as that of most of the teaching staff) came round to chivvy us out'¹⁵.

The opposition, however, was unrelenting — particularly at about this time; and this must be remembered in evaluating the comprehensive school. In Raymond's files there is the statement by the Joint Four, as the secondary teachers associations were called, of 1959. Entitled **The Organisation of Secondary Education**, it consists of a sustained polemic against the comprehensive and for the grammar school. A year earlier Raymond's own association, the IAHM, issued a statement entitled **The Grammar School: a reply to the Labour Party's Educational Proposals**. Scored, queried, and sharply commented on in the margins by Raymond, it argues that the grammar schools must remain inviolate. The IAAM (Assistant Masters), in a leaflet entitled **Comprehensive Secondary Education**, issued at the same time, concludes that the nation should resolutely resist any development which might destroy or damage the grammar school. Of course it was always Raymond's

contention that far from destroying the grammar schools, the transition to comprehensive meant the extension and transformation of these schools to meet the needs, and the nature, of the entire secondary school population.

At Wandsworth Raymond developed an organisational pattern which he felt to be appropriate to the abilities and interests of his comprehensive intake (see his 'Educating the Non-Scholastic'¹⁶). Eight teachers comprised a remedial department for what are now known as slow learners; projects and activities, some very imaginative, formed the staple of the educational experiences of the next 20%. The variety of courses offered in the main school covered what he then saw as five levels of ability and comprised a variety of directions. In the tutorial groups and houses, in games and athletics, in the famous Wandsworth School choir, in dramatic activities which Raymond encouraged, all the students mixed together, whatever their courses and direction. Standards were raised, as Raymond predicted they would be. 'In September 1956', he wrote six years later, 'By unselective entry 410 boys of 11-plus were admitted to Wandsworth School in London. In September 1961, 130 of them entered the sixth form, a proportion which a few years ago would have been respectable in a grammar school . . . Boys from every one of the 14 forms of 1956 entrants reached the sixth and from nine of these fourteen forms the academic sixth'. Only 62 of the original 410 entrants had the IQ of 115 or over that distinguishes the grammar category. 'And yet just over 70% not only stayed beyond the compulsory age but continued into and mostly completed a fifth year'. No wonder he titled the article: 'Comprehensive School — a Pattern of Achievement'¹⁷.

Such, then, was Raymond's contribution to the concept of the comprehensive school, as realised in his own school in the late '50s and early '60s. In the 20 years which followed his retirement, as Secretary of the English New Education Fellowship, when chairing the **Forum** editorial board, and in other areas, his thinking did not stand still—indeed he was one of those rare people whose thinking seemed to get more radical as he grew older.

7. Challenge for the 1980s: the common school

Having traced the movement to comprehensive education through the thinking and experience of Raymond King, what, now, of the challenge to

comprehensive education in the 1980s, in the unending struggle to realise secondary education for all? Although the times are not propitious, circumstances can change, and be changed through our actions. It is as well, therefore, that those of us closely involved in this issue should define, and redefine our objectives. Only so can we hope to hold, or to regain, the initiative.

First, then, what comprehensive schools? Raymond's whole life struggle was directed to attempting to ensure that we in this country would construct a school system that was truly **national** in its scope and structure. That was why he was and remained so sharply opposed to the maintenance of an independent system of fee-paying schools quite outside local authority systems; and that was why he deliberately and systematically set out to transform his own school as a comprehensive school—a model in miniature, as he hoped, of what might be a national system.

The creation of a truly national system of education through the conscious development of comprehensive schooling must surely remain our objective—as opposed to current policy which, through the assisted places scheme and in other ways, attempts deliberately to shore up the private sector at the expense of the public, or maintained system of schools. Comprehensive systems are now under attack. Raymond's policy in the present circumstances (and I am sure I can speak for him here) would be not only that of strengthening the defence of existing systems—of all that has been gained over the last 20 years and more—but to take the struggle into what might be called enemy territory, and work for the **extension** of comprehensive systems until they genuinely form a **national** system of education. We need again, as he said to London teachers, when discussing this issue in 1964, 'a revival of the spirit of 1942'. This was a time when just such perspectives were being advanced with wide popular support.

Second, a re-think of the nature of comprehensive education is urgently necessary, together with structural changes, especially in the examination system which still reflects the divisive and élitist structures of the past. Comprehensive schools must cater for **all** students, whatever their gender, ethnic and class differences. All need assistance to develop not only the basic skills in literacy and numeracy, but also to gain access to that selection from our

ulture which holds the key to knowledge and so to autonomous and effective action and living in the contemporary world.

This re-thinking is a major undertaking, and the sharpness of the problems involved, particularly in our inner cities, cannot be underestimated. How can we establish a common curriculum, or core, appropriate to young people at the turn of the century? How far do we need national or local authority guidelines — and by what **democratic** means should these be established? How far should we be left to individual schools to establish their own curricula in the light of such guidelines? In the current issue of **Forum**, Malcolm Skilbeck, now President of the World Education Fellowship, contributes a reasoned and thoughtful article precisely on these issues. Entitled 'Core Curriculum Revisited', it argues for a national forum to hammer out these questions, now that the Schools Council has been summarily abolished. The challenge to educators, Malcolm argues, 'is to locate core curriculum analysis in terms, not just of **areas** of experience, but of learning **processes** and the type of learning **environments** which may best sustain these processes'¹⁸. If we think in terms of a common core in this sense for all between the ages of 11 and 15 or 16, schools are left free to adapt this to local circumstances and interests so that the activities and learning undertaken have meaning and relevance for students in specific areas and conditions; if we can transform the assessment system so that it **reinforces** such learning instead of distorting it (as at present), then we can surely find the way forward — as indeed many schools are already in spite of all the constraints still existing. The major challenge, then, is the major challenge to the comprehensive school.

Linked with this is the perspective, seen as crucial since the inception of the movement, of reducing and so far as possible abolishing internal differentiation processes within schools; at least, to avoid differentiation as leads to qualitatively different educational experiences for whole groups of pupils, as the obsolete system of streaming certainly did and as the Government's new Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI) threatens to do. When we argue for a common curriculum we are not arguing for the imposition of the same curriculum for everyone either in the system as a whole or within individual schools. We are

arguing that all should have access to knowledge, culture and the skills all require in contemporary society. There is room, in such a system, as many schools are showing, for individual students to find their own direction with the help and guidance of teachers. Such individualisation, within a common perspective, may be the way forward; though I personally agree with David Hargreaves that our system has made too great a fetish of individualism and that what is needed now is a more organic, or solidary approach involving groups of students working together on common problems¹⁹. Linked with this perspective is our heightened awareness of the dangers of gender and ethnic discrimination, and the clear and evident need consciously to overcome practices of the past which have narrowed the opportunities offered to female students in particular (but also in some areas to males) and particularly to members of ethnic minorities.

I have two other points, both issues on which Raymond felt strongly. First, the development of comprehensive schools as communities, and, taking it further, as community schools. Raymond saw the comprehensive school possibly as leading to the school as a community function. And here Fred Clarke's comment, back in 1940, is worth recalling. 'The mass of the English people', he wrote, 'have never yet evolved schools of their own. Schools have always been provided for them from above, in a form and with a content of studies that suited the ruling interests.'²⁰ The movement to comprehensive education was, in fact, a grass roots movement, at least at its inception. It still has the potential of recapturing that characteristic, and, I suggest, this is the direction it should go, as indeed it is in various parts of the country. This opens out the possibility of transforming the system into a truly popular system of comprehensive schools, serving and controlled by local communities within local authority systems. We need, I suggest, to gather and evaluate the experiences of community schools in different parts of the country, and so find the way to enhance local and popular control of schooling. Schools can only gain strength from such contact; once the school is isolated from the community it becomes immediately vulnerable to forces which do not and cannot have popular objectives in mind.

The second point is linked with this — democratisation, both within the school, and in

terms of its external control. If our objective is popular community control, then within the school there is the need to enhance opportunities for participation in decision making to the staff as a whole (including the younger and newer recruits) and involving the students also; that is, moving in a collegial direction. There have been a number of striking developments here over the last few years, but progress in general remains slow. There is an enormous fund of professional expertise among the teachers, and forms of control must tap this source of energy and innovation, rather than inhibit it.

Such, then, is our perspective; based very much on Raymond's thinking, and in its development after retirement. The comprehensive system as a national system; a restructured common core of activities for all between the ages of 11 and 15 or 16; the abolition of all forms of segregation within the school relating to so-called 'abilities', and gender and ethnic differences; the development of the comprehensive school as a community school or function; democratisation of control both externally and within the school. These are all objectives that Raymond strove for and sought to achieve. Single minded, sure-footed, **resolute**, Raymond pioneered the road in a way few could equal: 'I am not alone in believing Raymond King to have possessed greater intellectual and moral stature than anyone else I have known', writes Roy Waters. 'Nor will I be alone in remembering his encouragement and deep kindness. I heard of his death with sorrow; but I rejoice in having known him.'²¹ He surely deserves the description I quoted at the start. He was a true hero of comprehensive education.

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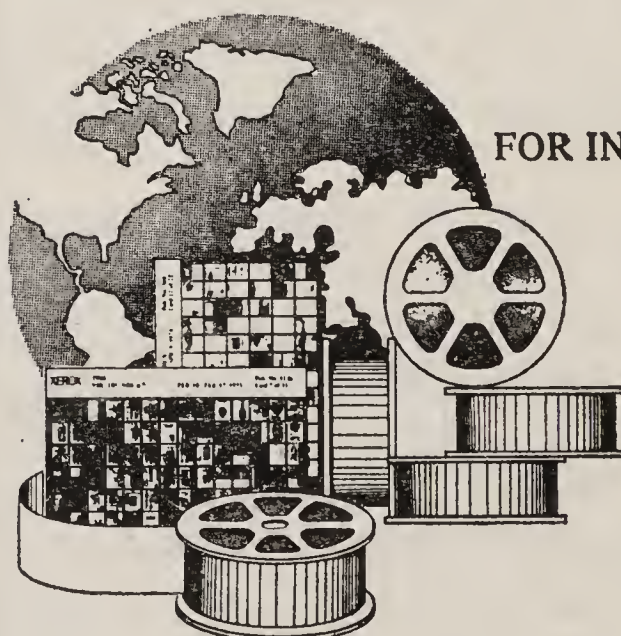
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The Arts as Prophylaxis

Maurice Plaskow

art' wrote R. G. Collingwood, 'is the community's medicine for the worst disease of the mind: the corruption of consciousness.'

Consciousness we take to be a state of awareness, knowing. It is a distinctively human characteristic which allows us to reflect on experience and to attempt to make sense of what we see, hear and feel. We internalise the messages, reconstruct and reshape them, give them some form of expression.

To help us with this complex task, we have devised languages; we make sounds, marks, shapes, gestures to provide forms for thought and feeling, which make communication possible and give coherence to understanding.

An essential task of the educational process is therefore to help young people gain confident hold of skills in these languages, and knowledge of their range and scope. Through them we achieve access to information and the experiences of others, enter into and sustain relationships, aspire to meaning.

One of the earliest Schools Council Working Papers¹ summarised the broad aims of education:

It is so much what ground to cover in the sense of what subjects to teach, but what information, ideas and experiences to grapple with, through what media, and by what means. The problem is to give every man some access to a complex cultural inheritance, some hold on to his personal life and on his relationships with the various communities to which he belongs, some extension of his understanding of, and sensitivity towards, other human beings. The aim is to forward understanding, discrimination and judgement in the human field — it will involve a range of factual knowledge, where this is appropriate, direct experience, imaginative experience, some appreciation of the dilemmas of the human condition of the well-hewn nature of many of our institutions, and some personal thought about them'.

In this sense all education is prophylactic: it should promote mental, emotional and physical health and counter those insidious diseases within the environment which endanger the human condition.

Unfortunately there is a strong strand in the tradition of schooling which has a narrowly instrumental focus, which threatens to distort humane curriculum aims by reducing education to training in skills, instead of seeing skill acquisition as the

necessary, but insufficient condition for creating vision and meaning.

Over 25 years ago in a prophetic address on **Humanity, Technology and Education**² Sir Herbert Read said:

'In our own time the divisive process has been elaborated and legalised into a rigid structure of vocational education. The ideal of education is no longer the development of the whole man... it is an intensive search for special aptitudes and the development of a chosen aptitude into a particular technique. We are told that our survival as a nation depends on this partial and specialised form of education.'

This tension within the system is still with us. We are seeing renewed attempts to establish specialised vocational courses for groups of students from the age of 14 (the Government's Technical and Vocational Initiative), as though these are peculiarly appropriate for a section of the population. This of course derives from an educational tradition which is overwhelmingly 'academic'; that is, a concentration on subjects studied at universities and examined by them. Consequently it is possible for a Secretary of State for Education to confess that:

'I am presiding at the moment over an education in which there really is inadequate provision for a very substantial minority'³ on the thesis that what is on offer is an academic curriculum which is unsuitable for at least 40% of students.

This seems to confuse the content of the curriculum with the nature of knowledge, the way in which it is presented, and the processes by which people can get access to knowledge.

In its evidence to the House of Commons Select Committee on Education and the Arts, enquiring into the secondary curriculum, the Gulbenkian Foundation wrote that:

'The arts, in common with the sciences, are ways of organizing our understanding of the world and call on profound qualities of discipline and insight... Academic values in schools are insufficient where they abstract education from the practical world in which young people live and must make their way. Young people are often urged to show powers of innovation, initiative and application in solving problems and pursuing opportunities. The arts, together with the other major areas of educa-

tion, can provide the opportunities for fostering these desirable qualities.'

As Her Majesty's Inspectorate pointed out in their Curriculum 11-16⁴ document: 'we see the curriculum to be concerned with introducing pupils during the period of compulsory schooling to certain essential "areas of experience" (eight in all). One of these is the "aesthetic and creative". And all eight areas need to be in balance within the curriculum. Subject content then becomes an experience carrier, the vehicle by which the overarching curriculum aims are to be realised. Subjects are not ends in themselves providing a crude passport to the market-place.

The Experience of the Arts

In his book *Cognition and Curriculum*⁵, Elliot Eisner argues the thesis that 'the senses play a fundamental role in concept formation . . . the kinds of concepts that humans form relate directly to the kind of content that each of the senses makes possible'.

Throughout life we struggle to negotiate meanings. Very young children have to make some sense of their environment before they can even form concepts. This can be done through feeling and association: contact, vision, sound, gesture; the pleasures of warmth, affection, food and comfort. They respond to rhythm and movement; they learn to distinguish approbation and disapproval from tone and manner. They enjoy making marks which develop from scribble to drawing. They delight in the sheer sound of language, which suddenly unlocks a universe of relationships, dialogues and understandings.

Children have gained tremendous mastery over these skills, sensations, manipulations before they ever get to school. Education should not be an austere business of abandoning or ploughing over childish experiences, but developing and deepening them, so that they have coherence, pattern and significance.

When we, as adults, reflect upon those formative and traumatic experiences which have affected us, many of them will be the encounters with literature, music, drama, painting, sculpture or architecture. It is unlikely that anyone has ever identified a text book as a life-enhancing experience.

Why, then, do schools often relegate the arts to fringe activities, while still ostensibly subscribing

to the rhetoric of 'developing lively, enquiring minds'⁶ and to 'appreciate human achievements in art, music, science, technology and literature'⁷?

A somewhat cynical explanation might be that lively and enquiring minds are potentially disruptive. They are certainly not overly compliant. The paradox is summarised sharply by Herbert Thelen: 'It is in the formulation of the problem that individuality is expressed, that creativity is stimulated, and that nuances and subtleties are discovered. It is these aspects of inquiry that give birth to new social movements and political orientations, and that are central in the emergence of insight. Yet it is precisely these aspects of inquiry that schools ignore, for they collapse inquiry to mere problem-solving and they keep the student busy finding "solutions" to "problems" that are already formulated, externalized, depersonalized, and emotionally fumigated. The school is concerned with the student who formulates his own problems only when he is so creative with school property that he perforce enters a "counselling" relationship (on pain of dismissal). But as far as the academic work of the school goes, personal stirrings and strivings and self-discoveries have no place. In effect, what is missing is the investment of learning with personal emotion and meaning.'⁸

So What's the Problem?

Thelen presciently forecast one of the vogue slogans of the 1980s: the problem-solving curriculum. In fact what is needed is the problem-seeking curriculum; the turning of teachers' puzzles, in Jerome Bruner's phrase, into opportunities for students to identify and therefore engage with problems which they perceive and feel to be real, relevant and worth pursuing.

This implies a radical shift in the emphasis of schooling away from the narrow instructional, didactic and authoritarian to an approach which is experimental and problematic. It requires the notion of a teacher as researcher and learner, put forward with such compelling eloquence by Lawrence Stenhouse. It is entirely appropriate that the collection of his essays published shortly after his death was given the title *Authority, Education and Emancipation*⁹. In a paper given to a Dartington Conference he dealt with emancipation, which he defined as 'delivery from intellectual, moral or spiritual fetters'¹⁰.

At a time when schools are under great pressure, and when traditional values and benchmarks have been largely erased, it is not surprising that there should be a retreat to the safe, familiar, unexceptionable. But the changing climate will not allow

is. Technology, patterns of work and expectation, global uncertainties all combine to ensure an unstable state. Our task is therefore to help young people cope with diversity and uncertainty; to give them some hold indeed on their personal lives and relationships from a platform of their complex cultural inheritance.

Those schools which have instituted central elements of the arts within the curriculum of all their students give heartening testimony to the difference which this makes to their maturity, poise, confidence and co-operativeness. We need to foster the intelligence of feeling as much as that of rationality and judgment. And this for everyone, without categorising people's worthwhileness in terms of academic 'success'. There is a terrible perversity in denying continuing involvement in the arts to potential 'A-level' candidates, as though this experience is peculiarly appropriate to the 'less able'.

Lawrence Stenhouse ends his essay **Towards a Vernacular Humanism**:

The contemporary human condition is never the product of success but always, by contrast, the outcome of those aspirations men have thought it worth falling short of'.

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Oxfam's Development Education Unit in Oxfordshire

Anthony Weaver

In the rolling fields of Oxfordshire a tall building rises above the countryside, a landmark seen from the motorway. This is a branch of the Oxfordshire Polytechnic at the Lady Spencer Churchill College in the village of Wheatley. In two tiny rooms in the basement, giving on to landscaped lawns and in-land to the whole county and beyond, Og Thomas works in his powerhouse.

It is exciting to convey to readers of **The New** the extent of this man's achievement in half a dozen years, to try to see it in context and to hazard its growing points. In the '60s Og Thomas was involved in Development Education in Tanzania and from this starting point, upon returning

to England, became head of Oxfam's Education Department.

Oxfam

Since Oxfam's early days — founded by Gilbert Murray and others in 1942 as a relief organisation — it has come to see that aid by itself can all too easily be wasted or get into unscrupulous hands. Hence the need to educate the recipients not only in technical matters but in the social implications, and demands, of an improved way of life; and to bring people in the western world to understand these problems and their own interdependence, culturally and economically (cf Brandt Report).

The nature of some of the educational work of Oxfam in the UK, on which it spends 5% of its budget, is revealed, for example, in the exertions of their Education Adviser, Aileen McKenzie, at the Lambeth Teachers' Centre in South London. Here a ten-week course in 1982 looked at links between art and development education.

A second example is Oxfam's publication **Looking after Ourselves** — an introduction to a family in Bangladesh¹.

At this point in the discussion of development education it is important to remark that the spirit of nationalism, for better or for worse, remains the driving force for countries of the third world, and elsewhere. This spirit emerges from a people's own culture, and it is the study and practice of the humanities that strengthens and gives expression to it². But governments tend to seek development through the gaining of western material things by the promotion of science and technology.

Furthermore, a humane system, without which the influx of inventions is of little avail, comes about through the cultivation of moral virtue upon an aesthetic basis, alongside the intellectual³. Without such a foundation, as Mathew Arnold warned, development is likely to end in hideous disaster.

The Oxfordshire Survey

To continue our story, at the closing down of the Development Education Fund by the Conservative Government in 1979⁴, Oxfam's Education Department and Oxfordshire Education Authority jointly set on foot a survey of the status of development education (or Third World Studies as it was described) in the County of Oxfordshire⁵. A thoroughgoing **Report** of this survey was published in 1980, the very process of conducting it having acted as a stimulant. Among its conclusions the most significant next steps were seen to be to promote —

continuity in the curriculum for the whole age range 5–19; closer associations with local communities, and the linking of schools with one another in the neighbourhood and overseas; and the imaginative use of artefacts.

In a side-long glance at other areas, such as multiracial, or environmental or peace education — where there are disputes about overlapping content — a fair unanimity about matters of **method** was identified. For the most explicit method model is that of Paulo Freire, who provides a strand, as

it were, by which the WEF and 'development educators' are laced together. Stress is laid on heuristic methods, pupil participation in their learning and the organisation of it: that is to say the time-honoured approaches in the progressive schools, both independent and local authority or school board, in the UK and the US.

DE Unit

The next echelon in Og Thomas' achievement was the setting up in 1981 of the Development Education Unit, with access to all the facilities for staff and students at the Oxford Polytechnic, supported by the County Education Authority and funded by Oxfam, both of whose representatives serve on the management committee. The 1980 **Report** had not only given confidence for such an innovation (which it is now hoped to extend until 1987), but pinpointed the strengths and constraints of DE in general, as well as revealing the growing points and already motivated personnel with whom to start work in the region.

The Unit's Newsletters, produced six times a year, provide much practical information for teachers and parents, and have had a cumulative effect in inter-relating the work which is spread over rural parts of the county. In retrospect they also comprise a substantial record of two years' activities. These may be summarised as follows:

1. Drawing strength by fostering the current interest in DE of teachers themselves. This has been done by organising support groups, in which teachers come together after school, with or without someone from the Unit, to help themselves by discussing problems and by building up collections of materials and artefacts.
2. The latter enterprise has been extended to two In-service courses, one of which is a Secondary/Further Education group at Banbury, developing ways of teaching against stereotyping and prejudice; and the other a Primary/Secondary group from the Henley area working on ways of teaching with Third World artefacts.
3. Full-time secondment to the Unit for special study leading to the Polytechnic's Diploma in Curriculum Development. Dissertations so far have included: Countering cultural/racial stereotypes and prejudice in the 15–19 range; selecting and maintaining artefacts; how to demonstrate changes in attitudes and values; evaluation of the educational impact of community linking; curriculum continuity.
4. Links (as recommended in the **Report**) between Oxfordshire schools and counterparts in the third

world. This involves parents at both ends who form liaison committees, generates the exchange of artefacts and leads to —

. Visits by staff and pupils. Two that have taken place have been to Sri Lanka from Thame, and to Nepal from Aston Bampton. During the period of preparation and upon return from the visit sessions have been conducted by the pupils concerned in neighbouring schools.

. Evaluation has been a constant concern of the support groups, all of which have been pressed to formulate and experiment with their own methods. The most coherent has arisen from a Strategy Grid produced by the Thame group, somewhat on the lines of Bloom & Krathwol's **Taxonomy of Educational Objectives**. Members are experimenting with a range of simple techniques for detecting and demonstrating changes in pupils' attitudes and values. Each technique is being studied for its suitability with different age ranges and different values. During the period of working together the group came to be concerned not merely with 'third world problems' but with 'change and development in society, and adding a global perspective to work which already goes on in schools'.

. The Unit has begun to publish a number of papers, some of which are based on its dissertations; and of reports of the outcomes of various parts of its programme.

The Unit's publications will spread useful lessons but its unique innovations beyond the confines of Oxfordshire.

Development Education and Education for Development

Development of the individual has long been revered in the ancient conception of education — distinct from training — as a process of drawing out inherent qualities. It is in fact somewhat technical to find development educators only now discovering that heuristic methods promote inter-motivation and retention of what is learned; there is every reason to encourage such new discovery.

Writers such as Rousseau, Godwin or Herbart in the late 18th century were perfectly clear, too, that an individual's welfare is intertwined with that of others, social and moral education is required too.

What is new is the realisation that human beings' infinitely closer interdependence has coincided with the proliferation of educations — peace, disarmament, international, multi-racial, political, ecological, environmental and so on.

Where method is a common key, a dialectical approach may overcome the profusion of content. The dialectic can be understood as the process by which contradictions are resolved, see Stephen Marks⁶, who refers us to the remark of Professor Dupuy, of the Collège de France: 'Without peace, development is impossible; without development, human rights are illusory; without human rights, peace is violence'.

The term dialectic can also be used in the sense of linking learning to social action such as the promotion of peace and of the development of human rights, as, at the present time, in Western Europe and in Poland. Here we come once again to the points of view of Paolo Freire⁷. Human rights is one of the areas where education must go beyond mere study to the involvement of the participants as subjects rather than objects in their own history.

These considerations seem to explain the move from curriculum development in terms of social and psychological well-being of the individual, to curriculum for development in terms of national or technological society⁸.

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Local education authorities in England and the curriculum — a case for intervention

Barry Taylor

Nobody, at least in the UK, would argue seriously that curriculum design should be in hands other than the teachers' any more than prescription writing should be undertaken by anyone other than a medical practitioner. I believe the key role in establishing principles as well as determining practice is rightly the teachers'.

Yet English teachers of secondary school pupils—the 11 to 19 year olds—have been conspicuously unsuccessful, in the main, in evolving curricula to meet changing circumstances. The obstacles they face are many, and mostly familiar the world over—lack of money and time as well as the in-built conservatism of articulated public opinion in educational matters are arguably the most crucial. Yet is it common ground for most teachers that a healthy curriculum is one which is constantly evolving, hence my concern that the management of change should be effective. Otherwise how can schools respond to, for example, the quantum leap in unemployment, the shortage of places for qualified students in the universities when these things happen within two years and the general assumption, at least in the English educational system, is that nothing substantial within schools can be altered, and certainly not the examination system, in less than four or five years?

The law requires that a Head must secure the agreement, or at the least avoid the opposition, of his governing body to any major curricular change. The governors are mainly lay appointees, often drawn from the avowed supporters of the political parties. So change, if it is to be universal, must occur in similar ways in hundreds of disparate locations at the bidding of thousands of individuals with differing attitudes. Consequently, the conventional model of curricular planning—a cycle of consideration, design, implementation, evaluation, modification—is extremely unlikely to proceed at a reasonable pace, in good order and a similar direction in all schools. Moreover, the management of education above the institutional level is vested in 104 local education authorities in England and

Wales. They are elected bodies, and therefore obviously of differing political persuasions as well as varying considerably in size and the general character of the area. Nor is the lead from central government on curricular matters a strong one traditionally. Yet perhaps none of this matters greatly provided there is some evolution everywhere. Let us consider the constraints on such evolution.

Why Schools find it difficult to change the Curriculum

First—the sheer magnitude of the task; Heads and teachers have to do two things: day-to-day management, that is keeping the machine running. They must see that their pupils have accommodation, are supervised, fed and watered and also that some teaching and learning occurs, as well as react to the immediate crisis, disciplinary or otherwise. Beyond all that they must try to reflect, to plan, to make themselves sensitive to forces and pressures outside school. How often does the latter responsibility have a chance in the face of the demands of the first? In English primary schools, i.e. catering for 5 to 11 year olds, almost all teachers teach all week and every week and in the smaller ones so do most Headteachers. Deputy Heads are often seen as the key curriculum innovators yet customarily either have charge of a class of up to 35 under-11s or in secondary schools (for the over-11s) have a major timetabling or pastoral responsibility for an establishment of up to 2,000 pupils. Most heads of academic departments—responsible for English and Maths, for example, throughout the school, have no more than one-sixth of normal teaching time free from class contact.

Obviously the official school hours are only a proportion of a teacher's working year, although precisely what proportion is a matter of dispute between professional associations and employers. Nevertheless I think it extremely unlikely that curriculum development, or its effective control by the professionals in schools, can—or does—occur

about a substantial commitment of time and energy outside school hours.

The complexity of the exercise increases almost daily. The most recent imperative at the primary level is the universal introduction or extension of science. In former times there has been successively, simultaneously, a collective clamour for French, 'basic skills' (variously interpreted), health education, the world about us (a nicely defined area!), urban or rural studies, preparation for a multi-ethnic and cultural society, combating of sexual stereotypes — and so on. At the secondary stage matters become even more complex — or confused. To the foregoing can be added preparation for the world of work — or leisure — vocational orientation (what vocation and how specific?), more modern language teaching, better maths, political education, more oral English, more technology and science, emphasis on the hidden curriculum — and on. Never does one receive proposals as to what might be left out of the curriculum — ostensible hidden. Within most schools, large or small, the human resources are likely to be quite insufficient to run the current operation and to review and refine this vast and growing range of objectives. In any case how does a school, once it has decided upon a shift of emphasis, achieve it? Primary schools may well wish to tackle science more thoroughly but if they do not have the expertise — many schools still have only one, two or three part-time teachers — then a substantial investment in staff development is necessary. Yet rather than give extra staffing resources to permit this the school is quite likely to face the redeployment of a teacher, justified by declining numbers but really needed by lack of funds. Equally many secondary schools aspire to develop more practical work, particularly in the technologies; but workshops can take only half-classes and redundant history teachers cannot be converted overnight to computer wizards. In other words schools have the combination of staff and expertise which they have and within the school's competence it is simply not possible radically to shift that balance in the course of an academic year or two. So the picture of the typical school which is emerging is of an inert mass. Of course this is only part of the reality. There are, and always have been, individual teachers, whether heads or not, who have broken the existing mould and indeed what happens in schools is rarely the

same from one year to the next. Yet for the generality of schools the limitations of time, energy and the range of expertise are real and restricting.

It is a truism — but true — that teachers rarely see each other in action. However integrated within the school, only exceptionally are curricula planned with other phases or neighbouring schools of a similar kind. So the innovator, or the innovatory school or department is likely to be ploughing a lonely furrow. Nor is dissemination of good practice at all easy to manage by an individual school. It may be that the devolution of responsibility for what is taught and how it is taught, not simply to the school but often to individual teachers, has led to a vast expenditure of energy and imagination in re-inventing many similar wheels.

Assuming a Head with his colleagues wishes to enhance Home Economics, remove the third, or second, foreign language or abandon Latin then, as I read the law, he has to convince his governors. Until recently my impression was that few Heads felt impelled to place such matters before the governing body. The fashion for accountability and the advent of parent and teacher governors has changed all that. Yet the entrenched views of a determined group of governors can be a powerful brake indeed upon progress in curricular matters. Parents too, both collectively and individually, can be potent defenders of the status quo. Woe betide the primary school perceived not to concentrate sufficiently on 'basic skills' or the secondary school flirting with mixed ability teaching, particularly at a time when schools must compete for increasingly scarce entrants.

Finally, in secondary schools there is the examination system. 70% of 16 year olds in most schools sit one of two examinations — or indeed both. The General Certificate of Education (GCE) is a pass/fail single subject examination designed for the academically able and perhaps a quarter of the total age group take it in between five and ten subjects. It is based almost entirely on written papers under examination conditions. The Certificate of Secondary Education (CSE) was meant to be less concerned with writing about doing and more with doing, to have a strong element of continuous assessment and to be an integral part of a curriculum designed largely at the school level. It has not turned out like that but is in general a pale imitation of GCE. Thus the majority of 14 and 15

year olds are prepared for tests of knowledge and recall and this militates against inventive teaching the development of skills and the meeting of needs. A recent report by the national inspectors of schools — Her Majesty's Inspectorate (HMI) — has demonstrated again that a large proportion of young people believe that school has nothing of consequence to offer them.

What the LEA can do

The fact is, of course, that curriculum development has always been co-operative, locally and nationally. The partners have been foremost — but not always first — the teachers in the schools, the teachers' training departments in universities and higher education colleges, and occasionally the examining boards. As well there has been the Schools Council, a national body representative of all parts of the educational constituency and funded by the central government specifically to undertake curriculum development. Sadly, the present Government has abolished it. The role of the entity we call the 'Local Education Authority' (LEA) thus becomes more crucial. It is likely to be the paid help in the local education department who take a responsibility for the curriculum, not the elected politicians — although, of course, they can be a force for good or ill. The departmental staff comprise administrators — the more senior of whom are almost all former teachers — and inspectors and advisers who work closely on a professional basis with colleagues in schools.

Resources

The most direct impact which the LEA can make upon the curriculum is by deciding how to spend its money. It is highly unlikely that primary schools will be enabled to answer the Government's bidding on science unless LEAs do something to offset the impact of declining rolls on staff, and as well devote money to staff development. If secondary schools are to add technical and vocational foundation courses to their traditional offerings then they can only do so if the LEA is prepared to make the investment.

Perhaps more critical are decisions that money will be withdrawn. The shedding of an LEA's team of instrumental music teachers is hardly likely to enhance music within the total curriculum, even for non-instrumental players. The general tightening of

staffing scales is bound to place in jeopardy those subjects in secondary schools which traditionally attract the smallest numbers — classics, the second modern language, perhaps economics. So it is important to realise that few financial decisions, whether positive or negative, do not have curricular implications.

Throughout the financial difficulties of the last few years most, if not all, LEAs have managed to protect or enhance various areas of the curriculum.

Aims and Objectives

The received wisdom about LEAs is that the politicians decide policy and the Chief Education Officer (CEO) and his senior people advise and implement. It is not, and never has been, as simple as that. Certainly it is not unknown for politicians to take an assertive role in day-to-day management or to follow advice from someone other than the CEO. Equally the definition of aims, let alone objectives, is, and I suspect always has been, arrived at as a result of inputs from a wide spectrum of individuals and groups. Nowhere is this more important than in matters impinging directly upon the curriculum and internal organisation of schools. The primary function of the CEO and his political masters is to create a mood or climate in which curriculum development can flourish. For example in the early '70s in Somerset, there was a concern that the healthy liberalisation of the primary curriculum, which had occurred in the previous 20 years, might have been accomplished by less emphasis, at least directly, on communication and number skills. Secondary teachers expressed anxieties and as a consequence there was a general, but obviously not universal, agreement amongst teachers, advisers and administrators and politicians that this assertion needed attention. Subsequently primary teachers throughout the county developed, corporately, reading schemes and maths guidelines, and co-operated in the introduction of universal testing. Thus for better or worse a mood was created, or a consensus emerged. Similarly Heads of secondary schools have accepted that in the present state of the art it is prudent not to create mixed ability teaching groups for most subjects beyond the first year of secondary education. This is not an imposed regulation, but an agreement — and no doubt there are dissenters.

Of course aims and objectives are easier to

lieve if backed by money. In 1982/3 additional money went to develop courses for the 16 to 18 age group as a response to unemployment, the perceived need for new kinds of courses and for the development of informal educational provision. All schools and colleges, and the community education service, are involved and enthusiastic — and most important — we are learning together. The key point, then, and it will be crucially important in the next ten years, is that LEAs can make articulate the needs of their communities, and, even in difficult times, release resources to try and meet them in a way which cannot be managed at the individual school or college level.

Staff development

Currently it is exceptional and fortuitous for a teacher to be given secondment for one term every seven years let alone an academic year. Indeed, all too often, secondment is more a means of making an offering to a potentially redundant teacher or removing an incompetent one than enhancing the skills of the competent. Yet the basic problem remains and indeed becomes more acute. In primary schools 40% more of teachers will be in the classroom throughout their career, and promotion prospects have worsened, and will continue to worsen. Similarly, the refreshment afforded by promotion and new challenges will be significantly less available in secondary schools now that we are for the first time, part of a contracting industry. Thus if for no better reason than to maintain enthusiasm or even sanity, it becomes more than ever crucial for LEAs to create opportunities for teachers to get away from their schools.

But, of course, staff development should go far beyond ad hoc course attendance. Every teacher should know that his superior reviews his progress and professional needs with him regularly, and then has the means to deliver those things which will make him more professional, more able to design and provide relevant curricula. Amongst these are likely to be, as well as course attendance, the opportunity to visit other schools and colleges and to plan the curricula in conjunction with colleagues responsible for other phases. It is unlikely that any of these can be facilitated by a school alone. Of course most LEAs also fall far short of decent provision — of money for courses, for replacement teachers, for pupil/teacher ratios which

allow a reasonable amount of time away from the classroom and so on. But my point is that only by developing the corporate and political will within an LEA can progress be made. I think it extremely unlikely for example that a centralised system could facilitate local staff development needs more effectively than the LEAs, or be more receptive to the just demands of teachers in this respect.

Equally, it would be the exceptional school, left to its own unsupported resources, which could develop and sustain a programme geared to enhance the professional competence of its staff. In Somerset, for example, it was an LEA county-wide initiative which has resulted in the overwhelming majority of schools now devoting two occasional holidays to school-based staff development and curricular review programmes. Before 1978 there was always the opportunity for schools to do this; in fact, they did not do so until it became LEA policy, after full consultation, for all teachers to be 'strongly encouraged' to participate. As a result school staffs, both individually and in association with neighbouring or linked schools, have designed and executed a most impressive range of activities. The decisions as to what should happen have been theirs; the Education Department's job has been to establish the framework, nurture a sense of purpose and then facilitate and fund outside resources drawn from the training institutions, other schools or the local inspectorate.

There is a widespread belief that both staff and curriculum development can only be really effective if firm foundations are laid during the teachers' initial training. I believe there are two crucial aspects. Obviously the LEAs collectively must try, as they have done under Central Government prodding, to relate the numbers of students in training to likely total vacancies. Equally, there needs to be a match between, for example, potential maths or science teachers and assessed needs. Curriculum development is a non-starter if a secondary school, in particular, does not have and cannot recruit the appropriate specialists perceived to be necessary to press forward the development. Here we come to the second aspect. During initial training, students need to be encouraged to see the curriculum as dynamic and to become receptive to the idea of later re-training and not wedded indissolubly to a particular specialism.

LEA Advisers and Inspectors

They are, or ought to be, experienced teachers undertaking a change of role but still retaining the attitudes, commitment and professionalism of teachers. If they are to be effective, they must not become distanced from the chalk face. On the other hand their value to a school lies in their ability to give an external perspective to its day-to-day activities. The inspectorial team must work to combat sterile, or stereotyped teaching — for example, where one group of pupils were found to have been presented with work cards at every single lesson throughout a day.

As well as disseminating good practice, the advisory and inspectorial service is now more clearly seen to have a monitoring role. Many LEAs now have some formal investigative and reporting process. At its most effective this will involve inspections, and with colleagues in schools, making joint assessments and proposals for development. Nevertheless, I believe there is also a key role to identify the inadequate or unacceptable, and to detail determined measures to improve matters.

Co-operative Curriculum Design

Joint curricular planning by groups of schools, or all schools within a local education authority's area or occasionally more widely, is becoming increasingly prevalent. In terms of economy of effort and enhancing the variety of inputs, I believe this to have decided advantages, often, over parallel curricular design in, say, an LEA's 300 primary schools or 36 secondary schools.

A basic LEA responsibility identified by the Inspectorate is to maintain continuity across the breaks at 4, 11, 13 and 16 years of age, or whatever. Given that somewhere children start a new school at every age between five and 16 except, I think, six, it is clearly of vital importance that not only do schools have sensible recording and transfer arrangements, but also plan their curriculum, if not jointly with other phases then, at least, in full knowledge of what each other is doing. The LEA must determine when, for example, foreign language teaching should start and share in relation to all curricular areas an 'agreement between schools on whether and how' as HMI puts it. Of course it is not suggested that total uniformity is possible, still less desirable throughout an LEA area; but for any group of children progressing

through the system, the parts must be seen to make a cohesive whole — and that is the LEA's responsibility.

In many areas co-operative efforts have been particularly thorough and detailed in recent years. In Somerset, common curricula have been designed by teachers from schools throughout the county brought together, usually by specialist inspectors, in the following areas:

Music in primary schools

Mathematics

Secondary English

Reading

Physical education

Science for middle years — and so on.

There is a widespread realisation nationally that there is a sensible economy of effort to be achieved as well as that few schools have a sufficient spread of expertise and self-confidence — or arrogance? — to plan their curriculum independently. There is, I think, a general anxiety about the evolution of universal curricula, or even a national 'norm', if too rigidly interpreted. It is vital that initiatives are fostered, and flexibility and a responsiveness to particular local circumstances assured.

Much is heard these days of the concept of a 'contract' in relation to the curriculum, a guaranteed minimum offering supplemented by optional extras which is, in total, acceptable to parents. Even allowing for the reality that, still, by no means all parents, for whatever reason, concern themselves with the detail of what their child is offered, I think this approach has much to commend it. In particular when declining rolls combine with financial restrictions it is crucial that LEAs define what is their 'guaranteed offering' at each stage of education and then ensure the resources to provide it — however difficult that may sometimes be. Central Government for its part must assist, and not hinder by the insensitive implementation of global financial policies.

Finally, I believe LEAs have a key role in determining the respects in which it is — and is not — reasonable to expect individual schools to be 'accountable'. In the first place LEA elected members and officers must have an explicit policy and must know what is going on in schools; which presumes a regular series of assessments and reports by the LEA inspectorate as well as feedback from HMI. Secondly, the LEA must be ready

support schools and teachers in repelling unreasonable demands of parents or interest groups for intervention in, or determination of, the curriculum. The teachers are the experts in curricular design and implementation. If they are wise they will consult widely and be susceptible to influences from the community at large; but if they are to be held accountable they must have the untrammelled power of determination. The work of schools is too important not to be undertaken by the professionals. In relation to school governors, too, the LEA must see that its teachers are not baulked in fulfilling their professional role. Of course governing bodies have a responsibility in general — and ill-defined — terms for over-seeing the curriculum. But if this is to be effective and helpful it presumes that the LEA has taken care in forming bodies and has ensured that governors have the opportunity to learn of the work of schools and be trained for their proper role.

I believe that the LEA has a seminal role in relation to the curriculum, particularly in bringing teachers together, providing thinking time and the means to implement their plans. It is not for the Education Committee or the Chief Education Officer and his colleagues to determine in detail the nature of the 'experience' referred to above. Nevertheless it seems to me sensible that some agreement on goals, both within an LEA and nationally, could be reached.

So in what ways might we seek change in the next ten years?

1. There needs to be a recognition that our primary, first and middle schools have, in general, provided a broad curriculum which is relevant to children's needs, and to society's, and which also develops the necessary basic skills for learning. On this basis we can then pay attention to the two main faults of school where this is often only partially true, those struggling with growing and worsening inter-city problems and those so small as to attract only two or even one teacher to provide for as many as seven age groups. Nowhere is the relationship between effective curricular provision and LEA resource allocation more sharply highlighted. The breadth and depth of curricula cannot hope to be enhanced without positive discriminatory policies.

2. In spite, or because, of the development of comprehensive schools most curricula are still

examination orientated and to examinations originally designed for an academic élite. It is time we, i.e. those working in education, considered more open-mindedly the alternatives — profiles, continuous assessment — to the current examination system. I am aware that there are massive forces of inertia within the system and often unreasoning opposition in the community at large to anything which appears to threaten academic standards. Yet if we do not open up the debate — and it is the thirteenth hour — who will? I believe the prelude to effective curricular reform in secondary schools must be a radical reappraisal of the examination system. Only then can we look to a curriculum for the majority which will be 'practical, useful, marketable and saleable'.

3. In the meantime I believe there is a strong argument for less choice between 14 and 16 years of age. Options are expensive, as any timetabler knows. If we want a greater emphasis on the technologies, as most of us claim, then to be realistic, something must give way. Is it to be the three separate sciences, the option of a third or second modern language, classics or a greater realism about the expense of small sixth forms? — for 16 to 18 year olds. We all have an ingrained habit of avoiding harsh choices to the eventual but inevitable detriment of curricular quality.

These then are just a few of the areas where I believe we need to change — and quickly. Whether or not the directions are the right ones, I am sure, to return to my main theme, that the role of the LEA is crucial. Schools and colleges cannot combat the forces of inertia single-handed. They need to be in alliance. Nor can curriculum be imposed nation-wide without sterility and the smothering of initiative. Consequently within broad national policy guide-lines it is the mechanism of the LEA which can best enable teachers to plan and control their curriculum. It is the LEAs' responsibility collectively to see that there is a direct connection made between curricular aspirations and available resources. It is also for the LEAs to open up more widely a consideration of the examination framework within which all post-primary education exists.

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Questions in Examinations

James Breese

This article follows from the request of the Editor in *The New Era* Vol. 64, No. 1 for successful alternatives to traditional external examinations.

In this article I give an example of a kind of question other than essay type that is appropriate in a three-hour paper for trainee teachers and two examples of questions that have been asked in a Diploma examination for teachers training to be counsellors. I then discuss two matters raised by James Hemming in the same issue of *The New Era*, portfolios for recording achievements and graded tests.

'During Teaching Practice you began to be aware that Beryl Jones, aged 11·8, sat very quietly in the front row of the class, appeared to be fairly attentive but never did any written work apart from when she was asked to copy. You mentioned this to the form teacher who enquired among colleagues and found Beryl behaved like that in all lessons.

'Suggest (a) reasons why Beryl had for so long gone unnoticed;

(b) reasons why she seemed unable to do anything except copying;

(c) what measures should be taken to help her.'

This type of question suitable for a three-hour end of course paper would probably best be categorised as a Structured Question, one which contains a statement giving a fair amount of information followed by about four sub-questions of, possibly, increasing difficulty, but not dependent on each other (Murphy 1979).

As an example of a question that has been set, the answers to which have usually gained more marks than the answers to traditional essay questions, I give the following. It was set in a three-hour paper in 1982 for teachers sitting for the Diploma in Counselling with Special Reference to Schools, a London University Institute of Education Diploma offered, until 1984, at Goldsmiths' College.

'You, the Fifth Year Head in a mixed comprehensive school where Year Heads are expected to counsel, are about to leave for home at 4.30 after a very full day when there is a knock at the

door and you find John Wills standing outside in some distress. You are due home at 5pm to get your own family their meal. Looking at your watch, but welcoming John in, you note mentally you can spare ten minutes. The upshot of his story amounts to the fact that he has only got CSE grades three and four rather than the ones and twos he and other staff expected, he has no job in prospect, but worse than all that his mother left home the night before, saying this time it was for good. John's younger sister, Tracy, is also in the school in the Third Year, but it is well known among the staff that her Head of Year only likes to deal with school problems. John tells you he is worried about home, because although he feels they can all manage without mum, his father occasionally gets drunk and gets a bit wild. You feel you must try to help John and also feel Tracy will need help. What will you do immediately, and what do you feel needs to be taken up in any subsequent counselling sessions?'

This question offers a good deal of information and tests the candidate's ability not just to use the information but to use theoretical and practical knowledge gained during the two years of the course. The candidate has to draw conclusions about what she feels to be appropriate courses of action and to justify the suggestions she makes. Ability to apply knowledge is thus tested.

Such a question could also be used in an oral examination in, for example, a role play situation with the examinee acting as the counsellor and another taking the role of the pupil.

Another question, set in the previous year's examination for the Diploma, asked candidates to comment on each of three counsellor responses to particular client statements, requesting that they give an improved version where necessary. The whole question contained three such client statements. An example of one of them is as follows:

Client: I wish I could stay all the time at my Nan's.

Possible counsellor responses:

(a) You feel you would like to live with your Nan?

(b) You feel your Nan cares more for you than your parents?

(c) Is it realistic to think you could leave your parents?

Again this type of question seems to be more acceptable to candidates than the traditional essay-type — probably because it is easier to answer. This is because the candidate is given the content. He is required to make a judgement based on his learning and experience of counselling.

There are problems, of course, when comparing different types of question in the same examination paper. One type of question may be more acceptable to candidates, may gain higher marks, but the very fact of it being 'easier' could suggest that it should be marked more strictly or should not be given as many marks as an apparently harder question. What we did in the Diploma paper over the kinds of questions discussed in this article, was to make them compulsory. They carried the same marks as the essay questions, and candidates have never objected to two such compulsory questions and to having choices for their other two essay questions in the paper.

James Hemming (*N.E.* Vol. 64, No. 1) welcomes two innovations that are 'gaining strength in several quarters', graded skill tests and portfolios for recording achievements that lie outside formal academic work including attainment in areas of interest. As regards the latter, indeed a 16-year-old's reliability as a Saturday shop assistant, a deliverer of newspapers, a baby-sitter or a cook may well be as good indicators of potential as a good employee or parent as performance in school subjects. Competence in sport, dancing, outdoor pursuits, as a member of a choir, a youth group such as the Scouts, as a chess player, guitar player, crooner, skater, drummer, snooker or darts player, any of these could be as important on a personal profile as a report on his P.E. and Games in school. There is, of course, the matter of verification. If it is left entirely to the individual to record his interests and attainment in them, exaggeration would be likely if it got around that the longer the list, the greater the likelihood of interview. Nevertheless, the notion is a sensible one — schools can too easily adopt insular attitudes towards extra-curricular activities — playing for the school team being considered an honourable achievement, but playing for a team outside school being ignored or

considered disloyal.

The advent of graded skills tests is also to be welcomed because young people need short-term objectives, rewards coming more frequently than at the end of the fifth year of school, if then. Again, the good sense behind these has been recognised by organisations like the Scouts and Guides with their tests for badges and the Queen's and other lesser awards. Those responsible for Tests of the Associated Board of the Royal Schools of Music realised the good sense behind graded tests years ago, as have those at County level who have given certificates for achievements in swimming. There is also a need for much greater flexibility over methods of examining: 'candidates might be allowed a choice between doing written papers or having more practical papers with orals' (Breese 1973, p 28).

Macintosh (Hudson, 1973, p 173) quotes from Schools Council Examinations Bulletin 21 a report on oral examining in Chemistry in which it was stated: 'CSE candidates throughout the full ability range expressed a liking for and an interest in practical and oral examinations. Expressed interest in and liking for written examinations declined sharply as one moved down the ability range'. Oral examining is, of course, more costly and this may be the reason why, despite the common availability of tape-recorders which could be used to facilitate it, it is still not very commonly used although, as Macintosh pointed out (p 172), 'one might have expected . . . to see a considerable extension of oral assessment in public examinations'. Still, it is good to see that there are some worthwhile changes afoot, even if much later than they could have been instituted.

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Round the World

Education for International Understanding and Peace

In a reformulation of the statement on Education for International Understanding and Peace from the 31st WEF International Conference, the WEF Victorian Section urges on all governments and peoples of the world the following considerations:

1. If peace is considered to be the mere absence of war, then we will perpetuate the present situation in which the absence of war, at least between the major powers, is purchased at the cost of a huge investment in armaments so as to maintain the 'balance of terror'. The economic cost of this is a great limitation of possibility even in the rich nations, and a reduction of the capacity of developed countries to aid poorer ones. Moreover, it carries no guarantee of effectiveness.

2. The search for peace should be looked upon more positively as a quest for a new and nobler morality, for a greater openness to the variety in the world.

3. Kindergartens, schools and tertiary institutions have the greatest capacity for developing attitudes which are consistent with this second definition of peace, but programmes must have official encouragement and be given expert support, and not left to the goodwill and initiative of individual teachers. Knowledge about other countries and other cultures will form part of such programmes, elimination of bias in text books will be essential, but the major emphasis will need to be on more subtle questions of personal relationships. Co-operation with, and goodwill towards, persons of other races is unlikely to be possible for people who have not learnt these attitudes in their relationships with members of their own neighbourhood. Naturally, communities with ethnic minorities not only have special needs but also wonderful opportunities.

4. An education which is highly competitive, which in its emphasis on knowledge virtually excludes feeling, and which turns out large numbers of adults who have accepted the system's judgement of them as failures will not produce many seekers after peace.

5. Over-specialization, particularly in the areas of science and technology, has led to a decline in the number of people possessing the wisdom and the vision required for 'global' problems, problems which cut across the boundaries of individual disciplines, or are not a part of any discipline at all, because they are concerned with ends rather than means. While a formal system of education may not be able directly to teach wisdom, at least it can take steps to prevent the cleverest students from becoming hopelessly narrow in their interests. We urge that all universities and tertiary institutions explore the possibilities of interdisciplinary courses, and that at the very least they require students, especially those in scientific and technical courses, to do some work in areas outside their speciality.

6. We urge that in all countries funding be provided for the establishment of teaching and research in universities in the area of Peace Studies (or Conflict Resolution, or...). We envisage the formation around the world of a network of 'Peace Institutes', with great academic prestige and far-reaching influence.

WEF (Great Britain)

At its January 1984 AGM, the English New Education Fellowship (ENEF) decided to change its name to the World Education Fellowship (Great Britain), in keeping with other WEF sections. With the WEF (Scotland) attention is being given to national UK representation in WEF.

Forthcoming Conferences and Lectures

Who Needs the Arts? The Necessity of the Arts in Education for International Understanding and Peace

32nd WEF International Conference. On: August 12-18 1984. At: Utrecht, Holland. Details: WEF National Section Secretaries, or WEF Secretary General (for addresses, see inside back cover).

Nineteen Eighty-four — Fact or Fantasy?

Council for Education in World Citizenship Annual Conference for Students. On 16-18 April 1984. At: University of York. Details: CEWC, 19/21 Tudor Street, London EC4Y 0DJ, UK. Phone (01) 353 3353.

Records of Achievement for all School Leavers — Challenges for Implementation

WEF (Great Britain) May Conference 1984. At: University of Bath. On: May 26. Details: Jack Whitehead, School of Education, University of Bath, Bath, UK.

International Association for the Child's Right to Play, 9th World Conference

At: Ljubljana, Yugoslavia. On 5-11 August 1984. Details: Zora Tomic, Conference Committee Chairman, Dom srednjih sol, Gerbiceva 51a, 61000 Ljubljana, Yugoslavia.

Book Reviews

NEILL OF SUMMERHILL — THE PERMANENT REBEL

by Jonathan Croall

London, Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1983, 436 pp.

The publication of a definitive biography of A. S. Neill is an important step towards the completion of that mosaic of educational experience which has loosened many of the foundations of 'classical' education in the past 60 years. It appears eleven years after Neill's autobiography, 'Neill! Neill! Orange Peel!', the American publishers of which added a gloss to that title, describing Neill as 'the world-famous Headmaster of Summerhill School'.

Jonathan Croall's sub-title — The Permanent Rebel — is perhaps more apt. While clearly on Neill's side, the author does not hesitate to paint the picture 'warts and all'. There can be little doubt that Alexander Sutherland Neill was, and is, the most controversial child educator of this century, and, therefore, arguably the most famous. Croall's book conveys faithfully the zeal of the man, but also his blind spots, his inconsistencies, his curious mixture of dogma and doubt.

Chapter 6 will be of more than passing interest to readers of the contemporary *New Era*, since an important part of Neill's educational experience came from his role as co-editor of the original *Education for the New Era: an International Quarterly Journal for the Promotion of Reconstruction in Education*, the founder and original editor of which was Beatrice Ensor. The first edition of that journal was published in 1920. Neill took up his task in July of that year for the third issue. This was a period of intense introspection following the First World War, when the concept of 'mechanical obedience' as an educational system underwent serious scrutiny.

The horrors of war seemed, at the time, to underline the awful consequences of blind obedience to authority. The New Education Fellowship, inspired by the writing of Edmond Holmes [profiled in *The New Era* Vol. 64 No. 4, 1983], had committed itself to principles which were to 'give free play to a child's innate interest, to respect individuality, to abolish competition in favour of co-operation, to encourage forms of self-government and to support

co-education'. Whilst Neill found no difficulty in subscribing to such objectives which covered the main planks of his educational platform for his entire life, the Theosophical emphasis of his Fellowship contained in its first aim 'to prepare the child to seek and realize in his own life the supremacy of the Spirit' was totally unacceptable to him.

By now vastly impatient of religion, the supremacy of the Spirit was non-existent to him. Adults, he believed, should not prepare children for anything.

Croall's biography brings out well the fact that, through his contact with remarkable contemporaries such as Caldwell Cook, Norman MacMunn and Maria Montessori, Neill became a kind of educational gadfly for the post-war period. All of these adventurous practitioners, while they were doing good things were, for Neill, far too prescriptive of the child's growth to be judged acceptable. 'The school that has no self-government should not be called a progressive school at all... Where there is a boss, freedom is not there.' Neill used his editorial opportunity to become both visiting fireman and highly visible advocate of 'free' education.

It is not necessary here to review the origins of Neill's educational iconoclasm, springing from the austerity of his own Scottish education. Croall outlines, in telling detail, the harsh demands of the system he had endured. They produced in the young Neill a life-long love-hate relationship with teachers and an almost obsessive need to over-compensate on behalf of the child.

There is no denying, however, the keenness of his observation of the experience of schooling or the powers of his own mind. Having surrounded himself with children who were given almost total freedom, Neill sought reassurance as to the motives which were revealed by their actions in Freudian psycho-analysis, to which he had been introduced by his friendship with Homer Lane. Even this did not satisfy him. 'I am indeed a Dominie in Doubt', he wrote. 'What is education striving after? I cannot say, for education is life and what the aim of life is no one knows. Psycho-analysis can clear

up a life; it can release bottled-up energy, but it cannot say how the released energy is to be used. The analyst cannot advise, because no man can tell another how to live his life. Freud clears up the past, but he cannot clear up the future.'

His search for the ideal locus for his ideal school took him, after more than a year with *The New Era*, to Germany and the Dalcroze School in Hellerau, the progenitor of Summerhill.

'We dream of a school where creation will be the chief object, where the child will do rather than learn, where he will make his own books instead of reading lesson books... because the world has had too much intellectual education and too much education of the conscious mind, we concentrate on creative education, that is, the release of the unconscious. We believe that to make a sketch of a church is better for a child than to copy a Rembrandt in an art gallery, that to write a poem is better than to recite "Paradise Lost".'

The first Summerhill opened at Lyme Regis, Dorset, in 1924. Immediately Neill began the writing of 'The Problem Child', tracing in it the faint outline of his subsequent book 'The Problem Parent'. It was, he claimed, the failure of parents to understand children's motives which caused them to make their children unhappy. The freedom he advocated was now freedom for its own sake, not his earlier rather immature protest against authority.

The translation of that freedom into school terms included the practice of voluntary classes, a massive test of the morale of many of the teachers he hired. On the other hand, Neill did not take kindly to the behaviour of one teacher who did not always himself turn up for classes. Freedom, it seemed, was not always two-way. Neill's ambivalence about the importance of lessons was apparent both in the puckish nature of his staff appointments and his hugely erratic regard for formal curriculum. His own traditional approach to lessons demonstrated a lack of commitment to teaching technique. He believed in the personality cult, 'The kids like you, and that's all I want'. Yet there were remarkably few categorical accusations of 'short-changing' his pupils in academic terms. Education was essentially a 'hands-on' experience. Books indeed were out. Relationships and social justice were in. If all these factors could be got together to produce a warm and supportive experience for long enough, those

who stayed the distance would be equal to all the subsequent changes of life.

In the process of the Summerhill experience, Neill endured many anxieties, whether, for example, through the potential sexual adventures of his pupils, the righteous indignation of his neighbours, the petty bureaucracy of the educational establishment or the simple hard edge of financial need.

A particularly interesting element of the book is the evidence compiled by the author of Neill's less well-known search after satisfaction and support for his position in psychological terms. His original contacts with Homer Lane, his brush with Freudian psycho-analysis, his involvement with Wilhelm Stekel and his deep friendship and client status with Wilhelm Reich all left their mark. Though he changed his ground, he never left the field of counselling and his personal lessons (PLs) were idiosyncratic forms of pastoral care on which he placed great importance.

Wisely, Croall's book does not attempt to provide any clear-cut conclusion as to whether Neill was right or not in his total educational practice. A pupil, Edwin Morgan, wrote: '... Now if you ask what I think of it, I honestly don't know. It was great, but I honestly don't know'.

Perhaps it is inevitable that differences of opinion should continue. Perhaps the concept of freedom for the child would have had more success overall if Neill had been able to start either with a group of 'normal' children at earliest stages of education or without a group context of 'difficult' imports who, from time to time, regularly, placed the school under huge strain. His was, of course, a boarding context, in itself, even in England, a minority prospect for the average child.

It was clearly impossible to apply assessment criteria of any scientific kind to the outcomes, though there is nothing new in that. Reliance on anecdotal evidence is a procedure obviously captive to many imbalances yet it is still the basis of many judgements of educational worth. Judged by such evidence, A. S. Neill cannot be denied success. He stands, however, as an educational phenomenon of the Twentieth Century, a hater of parents and of teachers, an unabashed advocate of the freedom child.

Jonathan Croall has written a well-balanced book, detailed but readable. It represents a worthwhile addition to the library of practitioners in educa-

n and its psychology.

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APARTHEID — THE FACTS'

International Defence and Aid Fund for Southern Africa, in co-operation with the United Nations Centre Against Apartheid.

London, June 1983. 112 pp.

Ever since Keppel-Jones published his fascinating *When Smuts Goes* shortly before the National Party came to power in 1948, prognostications about a South African future have become and have remained a topic of major fascination. All too often, however, each such futurological excursus has revealed rather more about the proclivities of the authors than about the dynamics of change in South Africa, consistent predictions of the impending and imminent demise of apartheid invariably being proved wrong by the course of events.

Apartheid — The Facts is largely successful in avoiding the temptation of adding but one more voice to this chorus of perdition or salvation, seeking rather to provide an information service on the realities of the South African situation. This is not to say that the volume leaves the reader in any doubt regarding where the sympathies of its compilers lie: the final chapter dealing with the growing resistance to the present régime prompts the reader to feel that the authors also perhaps see some light at the end of the tunnel. It would be naïve, however, to expect any rapid solutions to the current situation; as chapter eight suggests and as Simon Perkins has spelt out in a recent article in *The Economist*, the régime's aggressive policies towards its subcontinental neighbours suggest a new confidence and sense of power. Its dissipation and collapse will not come about by the wave of some magic wand.

The information service that is provided by this volume is impressive. While here and there one might carp at a particular interpretation, the volume is remarkably successful in presenting, in a brief and well-illustrated 100 pages, a welter of information about present-day South Africa. The panoply of legislation to create, maintain and enforce

apartheid is carefully presented, as are the police, military and diplomatic action that seeks to buttress the system and protect its beneficiaries. The chillingly exploitative economic policies of apartheid are, if anything, highlighted by the consistently sober presentation. 'White' political oppression and economic hegemony are thus clearly revealed.

The volume is also to be praised for not lapsing at any stage into anti-white rhetoric; a neat and simplistic oppressor-oppressed dichotomy drawn on the basis of radical classification would certainly not do justice to the political complexities of South Africa.

Two points of criticism perhaps need to be made. First, the volume attempts to explain the historical development of apartheid largely in terms of fairly general statements about the nefarious relationship between apartheid on the one hand and colonial conquest and industrialization on the other. A full understanding of the dynamics of South Africa both past and present is, however, impossible without some specific reflection upon the hopes, fears and pre-occupations of the Afrikaner Nationalist establishment. The ideology and rhetoric of the régime, and the assumptions upon which ongoing policy decisions are made, rest so pervasively upon the Afrikaners' definition of reality that readers would be tempted to employ inadequate explanations for the emergence and persistence of the phenomenon of apartheid were they not to be given some exposure to the *weltanschauung* of the Afrikaners. After all, a crucial question one is forced to consider in the course of reading such a book is why do people persist with such policies and practices?

The second point, which is not entirely unrelated to the first, is that the volume merely recognizes, but does not attempt an explanation of, the incorporation of blacks into the system — in the 'bantustan' authorities, the police, the army and so on. The pervasive suggestion that there is growing and increasingly militant opposition to the régime is one for which considerable evidence exists, but some treatment of what one might call the politics of incorporation is surely necessary if the reader is to avoid the oversimplicity of a black-white oppressed-oppressor dichotomy. The way in which apartheid structures are continuing to build up significant vested interests in different sections of the population is a factor so critical for the

future unravelling of the South African scenario that it cannot simply be ignored.

Manfred Stanley has reminded us that 'Sooner or later one must opt either again a status quo or for it and its possibilities. To do neither is to default on one's freedom of decision . . .'. **Apartheid — The Facts** provides a valuable overview of the context within which South African educators have to operate, carefully annotating and discussing the all-encompassing strategies of the régime. The teacher, as an employee of the State, is *ex-officio* an agent of the system; to oppose it in the classroom is to invite the wrath of the authorities, although the gap that exists between what Hawes calls the 'official' and the 'actual' curriculum undoubtedly leaves the teacher more freedom of action than most are usually prepared to recognize. Conversely, however, it is undeniably true that teachers and pupils suffered heavily in the upheavals of 1976 and 1980. The position of the teacher illustrates also the degree to which any person living in South Africa has to come to terms with the dilemmas of living under an apartheid régime which he or she does not accept. **Apartheid — The Facts** stresses the growing commitment to non-co-operation as a strategy followed by anti-apartheid groups but nobody, unless he emigrates, can escape being tainted by the system. Citizens of Soweto may decide to boycott an apartheid local government election, but those same citizens still have to deal with that same authority in the course of their everyday activities. People may criticize persons teaching or studying at an apartheid university, but they do so from their homes in an apartheid group area. The politics of separation,

rigidly enforced for over 30 years, may yet destroy totally any hopes for democratic unity, and so become a malignant self-fulfilling prophecy.

A perhaps even more crucial factor for the educator is the all-pervasive nature of the régime's attempts at political socialization. Bernstein's dictum, that 'How a society selects, classifies, distributes, transmits and evaluates the educational knowledge it considers to be public, reflects both the distribution of power and the principles of social control', needs to be extended, in a society with totalitarian features, to take in not merely educational knowledge but knowledge *per se*. The teacher who lives and works in an apartheid society faces the fundamental problem of access to information, for state denomination of radio and TV, and state censorship of information on an increasingly wide range of subjects facilitates exposure only to ideas congenial to the ends of the régime. Other information can be obtained if one is willing to ferret a little: yet, even to a South African who 'knows' the situation, reading about it in consolidated form in the 100 pages of **Apartheid — The Facts** occasions anew a sense of shock. What is more, possession of this volume without the permission of the Minister of Justice would be a criminal offence in South Africa, both because it quotes certain proscribed persons (like Nelson Mandela) and because it is published by the IDAF. That, in itself, is an eloquent commentary on the reality of South Africa under apartheid.

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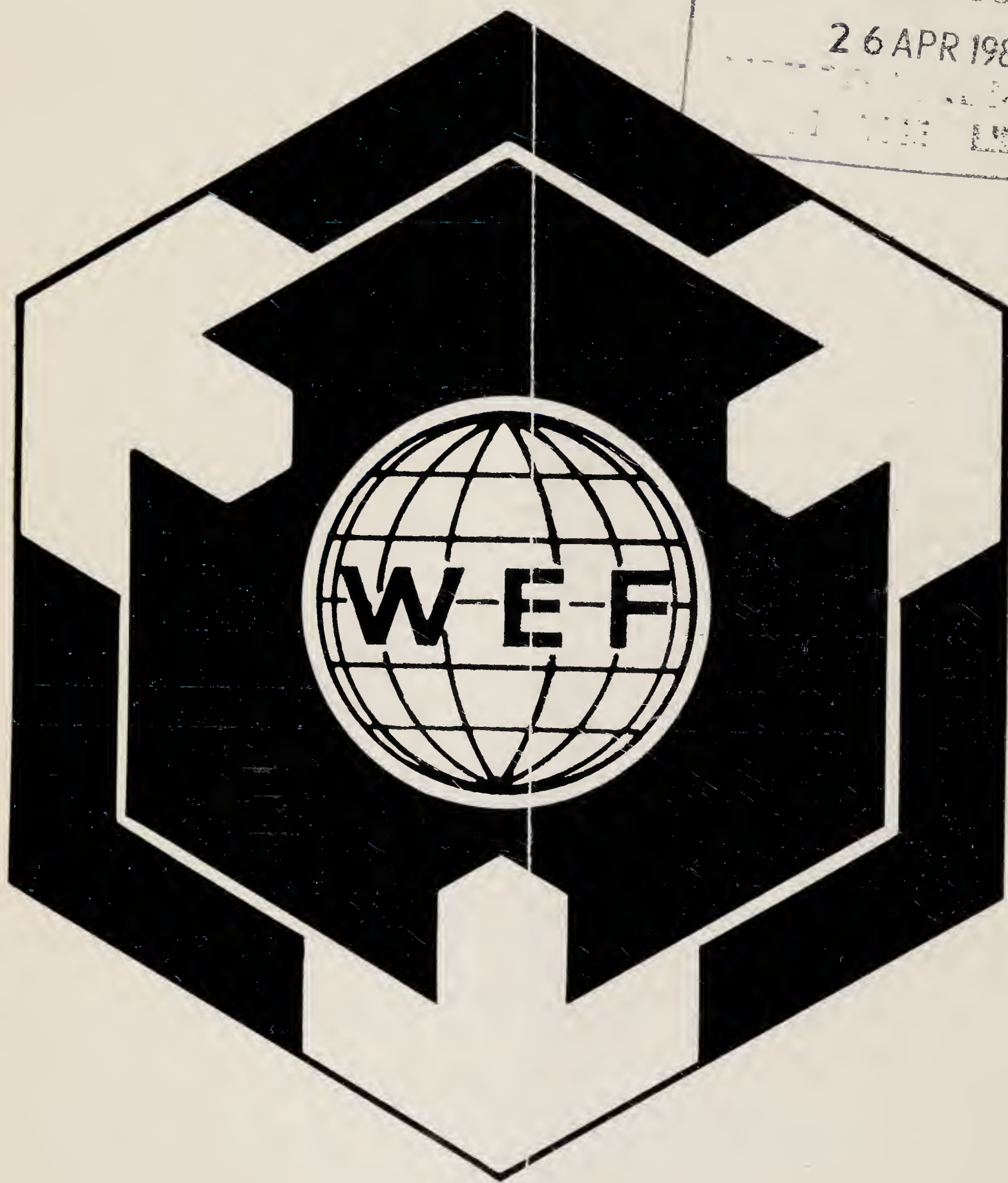
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THE NEW ERA

Vol. 65 No. 2 1984

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Journal of the World Education Fellowship

For many teachers and others in education, being in the age of computers is like living within sight of a smoking volcano: the prospect of a spectacular and perhaps disastrous eruption is present but life seems generally to follow its ordinary course. The potential of the computer revolution for our whole way of life is nowhere greater than in education, yet the applications and uses of computers are still barely glimpsed over large parts of our educational system. This is to some extent explained by the recency of the technological developments which have resulted in the large scale production of relatively inexpensive mini and micro computers. No less important are the hold of established practices and attitudes and financial and administrative difficulties of installing operating systems.

Yet if teachers have often been slow to apprehend the computer revolution in its fulness and variety, children are less inhibited and we are witnessing the phenomenon of student facility with processes, equipment and languages which to many adults are still intimidating. It is appropriate, therefore, that in this special issue on computers in education, virtually all the contributors have emphasised practical applications in the curriculum that are already available to teachers. We are no longer under the necessity to speculate about vague or unclear futures, but can examine the strengths and limitations of what is now being experienced.

HMI Walter Beveridge, who has a prominent role in the Scottish Microelectronics Program, illustrates the wide range of computer applications in the school curriculum in ways that will be both immediately recognisable to teachers, and a challenge to their imagination. Michael Wright suggests that knowledge, understanding and hands-on experience with computers is necessary if the educators' role is to be fulfilled and anxieties allayed. His article upholds the principle of liberal, humane education. Michael Wright also provides a note on his recent visit to the World Centre for Information and Human Resources in Paris.

The articles by John Jessel and Stephen Brain provide further insights into specific aspects of computer use: graphic display and adult literacy and further community education programmes. Both

authors, responding to teacher apprehension, confront problems and difficulties, some of them reflecting limitations of the computer in its present form, others embedded in the way of life and attitudes of teachers and learners.

Some of the most challenging criticisms of a dangerous dependence on computers come from leading figures within the field. Calculation is what computers do superbly well, but when they are allowed to usurp human judgement, we must take pause. This is the argument of the American authority Joseph Weizenbaum. His important book, *Computer Power and Human Reason*, is given an extended review by Harry McMahon, who has been prominent in UK research and development on computers in education.

Also in this issue are a summary of Bishop Austin Baker's powerful critique of the nuclear deterrence theory, delivered in London as the Marc Goldstein Lecture. The Round the World Section is devoted to Unesco's programme plan and its possible implications for WEF. The strengthening of our Reviews section continues.

With this issue, our long and fruitful association with *IDEAS* comes to an end. Special thanks are due to the Chairman of the Ideas Board, Michael Wright, Leslie Smith, *IDEAS* Editor over many years, and their colleagues at Goldsmiths' College who have contributed to the successful collaboration. They will be exploring other channels and means of discussion and communication; *The New Era* will continue as the quarterly journal of the World Education Fellowship.

We are pleased to welcome two new Associate Editors. Elsa Davies, whose brief is the British Isles, will also strengthen the journal in early childhood education. Peter van Stapele becomes Associate Editor for Continental Europe and will be contributing from his leading position in theatre education in the Netherlands. We have appointed a new Business and Promotions Manager, David Turner, a comparative educator from the University of London Institute of Education. With this strong and representative team we shall be continuing to review and develop every aspect of the journal and will welcome ideas and suggestions from our readers.

What use are computers in teaching and learning?

Walter Beveridge

Introduction

Several volumes would be required to answer the question posed by the title of this article. Yet many teachers do attend short in-service courses in the hope of learning, in one day or so, the value of the computer in the teaching of their particular disciplines. Such courses would clearly be best organised in homogeneous groups but this is not always possible. It is necessary, then, to provide for the diverse interests of a wide range of specialists.

The same problem faces the writer of an article for a journal with a broad based readership. The best that can be done is to identify some of the main attributes and strengths of computer systems and to discuss applications taken from different areas of the curriculum, choosing, wherever possible, less obvious examples in order to stimulate ideas.

Some of the strengths of computers are:

1. Electronic blackboard presentation.
2. Simulation.
3. Calculation.
4. Information storage and retrieval.
5. Control.
6. Stimulation.
7. Drill and practice.
8. Pictorial representation and sound.
9. Teaching the computer.

Let us take these one by one.

Electronic Blackboard Presentation

The microcomputer can be used with a large monitor to enliven, or simply vary, the general presentation of materials. Again, there are situations where traditional forms of presentation are insufficiently dynamic or interactive. For example, in wave theory the motion of individual particles, reflection, refraction and interference can all be shown as quickly, or as slowly, as the teacher wishes with variations following the suggestions of the pupils. Similarly, in transformation geometry the learner faces two problems at once, the first a skill and the other a concept. The skill is the ability to

plot points given their co-ordinates and the concept is the transformation itself. By letting the pupil investigate transformations on the microcomputer, the machine performs all the drawing, leaving the learner to grasp the concept. The skill practice can be re-introduced at a later stage.

In geography and health and social studies, population dynamics is an important topic. When the population is modelled on a computer, it is possible to consider the effect of birth rate reduction or better medical care at particular age levels and the shape of the chart changes—sometimes in ways not expected by the pupils. For instance, with a severe fall in the birth rate, the computer will show the patterns after 5, 10, 15... years and will probably produce a Christmas tree effect after 30-40 years: the “stem” of the tree reflecting the birthrate reduction.

The importance of this example becomes evident in subsequent group discussion where the teacher is able to elicit from the pupils a connection (however informal) between the birth rate, the number of births, and the number of females of child-bearing age, and will go on to consider the economic and social effects such as fewer ante-natal clinics and fewer places required in education. There should also be a look to the longer term, however, to consider the problems associated with an ageing population.

Simulation: Examples

(1) Simulations are important across the curriculum, particularly in science, where a practical experiment might be too long, too dangerous, too difficult, or too expensive. A chemistry teacher might want to investigate the speed at which the reaction of two chemicals depends on temperature, concentration or on the catalyst employed. It would be impracticable to give a dozen chemicals to the pupils and allow them to investigate how these react according to, for example, temperature. The problems of expense and time are obvious; the danger occurs because

certain chemicals will explode on being mixed at particular temperatures. When the experiment is simulated on the computer there are no expensive chemicals, each pair can be investigated rapidly and when, in real life, a danger point is reached, this is reported by the computer to the pupil. In other words, the machine is allowing investigative learning methods otherwise unattainable.

(2) In social studies, considerable time may be devoted to the political system, covering local structures, party policies, local and national elections, choice of candidates, national elections and the progress of a Bill through Parliament. This may involve 20-30 periods of teaching and, frequently, teachers look for a means of drawing it all together. Some act out a play; some use a computer simulation of an election. In the latter approach, the class may be divided into groups of three, each group operating a machine and each pupil representing one of the three main parties. A range of safe and marginal Parliamentary seats is available on the computer, some in affluent suburban areas, some in deprived urban districts and some in country constituencies.

COVENTRY NORTH WEST

Location	The Midlands of England
Electorate	55,000
Previous results from 75% turnout	
Labour	20,400
Conservative	16,489
Liberal	4,413
Majority	3,971
Candidates standing	
Labour, Conservative, Liberal	

Each pupil decides on his policies to fight a particular seat and the computer analyses the input and gives the results. Frequently, in spite of the implications of their studies, pupils choose policies well away from the party label in order to try to win the seat. After a few rounds, mini party conferences are held and after much deliberation each party decides on a few main policies which all their candidates must then follow, and the elections are continued. The objectives are to revise and consolidate the policies of the parties, to show that prospective

Members of Parliament are not free agents, to illustrate the wide differences between the constituencies and to provide a basis for further discussion and revision.

Calculation

Calculation is often considered to be the province of the mathematician and it is true that the computer is invaluable in statistics and numerical analysis. Indeed, by the 1950s, very complex algorithms had been produced so that numerical analysis problems could be solved by pencil and paper methods. With the development of the computer the theory has been greatly simplified; the machine can be left to do the calculation. Many other subjects, however, require a considerable amount of arithmetic in particular applications. In home economics, pupils are expected to be able to construct suitable diets for particular types of person, young children, a typical family of four, or old age pensioners in winter, paying proper regard to the fat, protein and carbohydrate levels. The calculations required to analyse even one meal are extensive and usually the teachers try to give pupils a feeling for the levels of fats, proteins and carbohydrates in particular foods without resorting to heavy arithmetic each time. Naturally this involves considerable effort for the teacher and an acceptance by the pupil that a diet which he or she has produced does have the deficiencies suggested by the teacher. Several programs have been produced which allow pupils to enter a description of the person concerned and the suggested diet is then analysed by the computer and compared with recommended levels. The pupil can then modify the meals to increase the fat content or lower the carbohydrate level as required, and the diet is then re-analysed (see diagram over).

In drawing isopleth (contour) maps from a series of spot heights the calculation involved is very heavy. Given the heights for points A, B, C and D on a grid, the value of each of these grid points has to be individually calculated with reference to fixed points and given heights. This is easily done by a machine and the output can be on a visual display unit or on a printer, perhaps in colour. Geography has become increasingly quantitative over the last 10 years and many programs are now available to help with the routine areas so that attention can be focused on the important aspects of investigation and discussion.

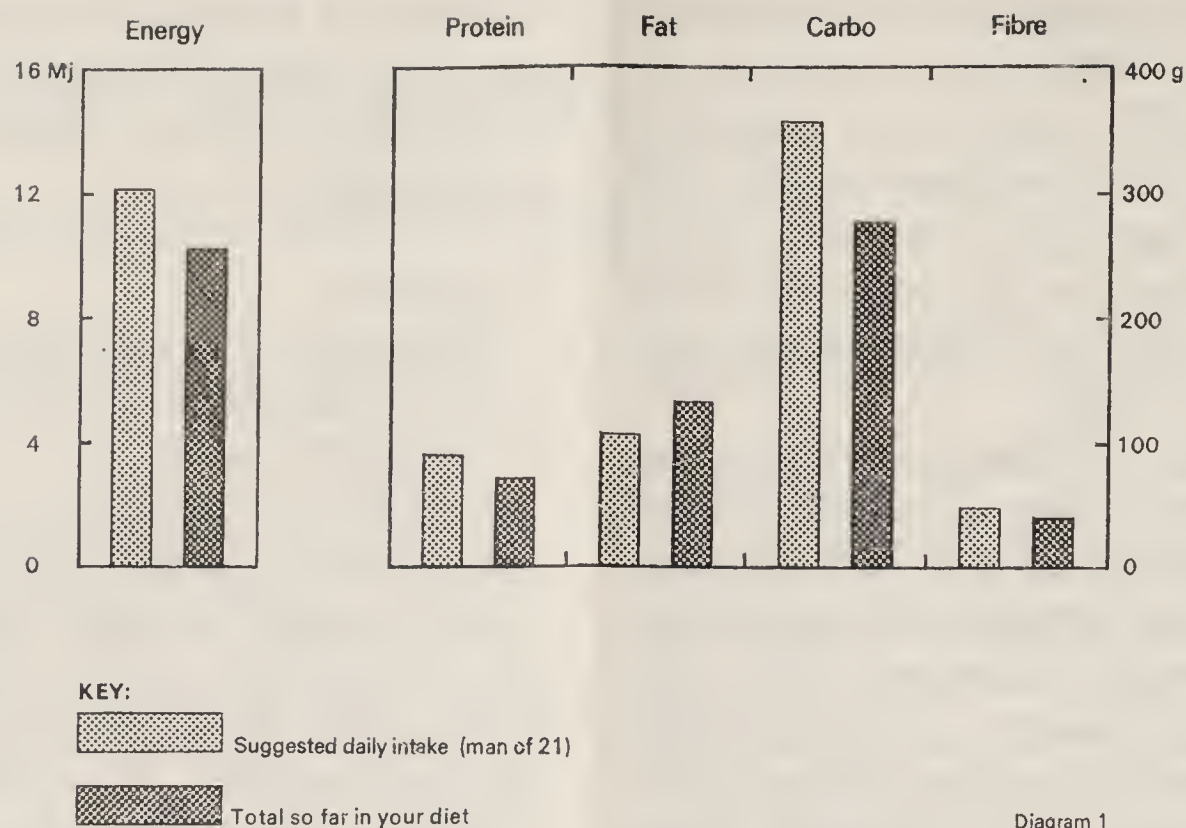


Diagram 1

Stimulation

There is no doubt that the computer can provide motivation. Some believe it to be a halo effect and that children will become tired of the medium. Even if this were true, it would merely mean that computer assisted learning should be used economically where it can give most benefit — as for all teaching techniques.

Tolkien's *The Hobbit* is recommended reading for many 11/12-year-olds. There are those who enjoy it and teachers have said that they can discern the effects in the pupils' subsequent writing. Others may not manage to finish the book. *The Hobbit* was produced recently as an adventure game on a microcomputer. Using graphics, the pupil is shown a clearing in a forest and is given a description of some of the detail, viz: Gandalf standing at the edge of the clearing holding a key while at the other side might be a stone with an object lying on it. The pupil is asked what he wishes to do. Depending on his answer, the situation changes and he is again faced with a range of choice. The game follows the story sequence fairly closely and, within one month of being given to one class of 11 year olds, every child in this class had read the book (frequently several times) in order to progress further and further through the adventure.

Word processing packages can be a useful tool to some pupils and can motivate strongly. One boy who had learning difficulties was given the use of such a package by his remedial teacher. The very first story which he produced was interesting and graphic and was immediately published in the school magazine. It was of far higher quality than

anything the teacher had received previously and there were probably at least three reasons for this. First, there was the stimulation of the computer itself. Second, pupils of this calibre are often poor at writing but they can type as well (or as poorly) as any of the others and the production comes out equally neatly. Something which was extremely laborious becomes fun and the results look good. Then if, after discussion with the teacher, the pupil thinks up other points to add to the essay or changes which he would like to make, he can use the word processor to change the text or to insert full sentences or paragraphs. The machine will take care of the spacing and produce the finished article giving no indication that it was ever amended. This compares markedly with the normal "wet finger erasure" and heavy black, thick pencil words inserted in the middle of lines together with emphatic scorings-out which are the normal results of any "improvement". The machine can also be used to stimulate an interest in vocabulary for it can flag, by a change of colour, any word which the pupil has used for the first time. The computer keeps a note of all the words the pupil has used before and, when the story of the day has several words picked out in green, it allows the teacher to congratulate and encourage the pupil to further efforts.

It is true that some of the commercial word processing packages are much too comprehensive for some children but there are versions of simplified word processors which are extremely easy to use and which provide a good basis to build on later, if required, in business studies or other courses.

ontrol

In physics, ticker tape is frequently used to measure velocity and acceleration. For example, in investigating the acceleration of a trolley down an inclined plane, paper on the plane is marked by a rotating pen fixed to the underside of the trolley, leaving a trace on which the waves increase in length as the trolley speeds up. Knowing the speed of oscillation and by measuring the waves on the drawing, one can calculate the velocity and acceleration of the trolley. It is laborious, lengthy and far from exact. It is much simpler to organise a microcomputer to time the trolley between two points close together, which gives the velocity, and to repeat this further down the slope, allowing the acceleration to be calculated. Initially the pupils can perform the calculation but later the machine can be programmed to give the readings of velocity and acceleration directly. The experiment takes only a minute to perform and can be repeated several times with different masses, trolleys and inclinations. It is immediate, easy to follow, and allows the investigative approach to learning.

Similarly, computers can be used to read temperatures (and switch off if over a certain limit), voltage and current and to differentiate between levels of light. This last facility allows a wide range of development such as the measurement of the pollution in a stream or the monitoring of animal experiments in biology. For example, in a simple case one may wish to investigate how a mouse in a cage spends its day, moving from a bed compartment to a food and water compartment within the cage.

By using photocells in each compartment connected to a microcomputer, an automatic record is taken of the percentage of time which the animal spends in each area.

In technology, Computer Numerically Controlled (CNC) machinery is important and packages are now available which simulate this or which control devices such as lathes or drilling machines. Again, other programs are available to control miniature traffic lights, washing machines or lifts. An interesting development over the last few years has been the use of a microcomputer to control a buggy or turtle. The latter is an electrically driven machine which can draw on a horizontal flat surface and can be moved in any direction. The shapes drawn on the paper can be duplicated on a visual display unit so

that geometrical ideas are built up in concrete terms and abstracted later. The language used to program the computer would normally be LOGO and the construction of simple repetitive patterns leads very easily to the idea of procedures in programming. The integrative effect of this whole application is clear with the experience of control technology being used to help develop spatial awareness and to provide an introduction to good programming practice through the use of procedures.

Information Storage and Retrieval

One of the main uses of computers is for rapid information storage and retrieval. Applications may be in criminal detection, income tax or airline reservations. This use is relevant to many disciplines, including, of course, business studies and economics. But in history projects one will be able to use real archive information stored on computers. One investigation already undertaken by a 17 year old was on the effect of the Napoleonic wars on Scottish exports. The trade of British ports throughout the last 200 years is well recorded and one university institute happened to have computerised all the records of imports and exports for Scotland for the period 1750–1850. The computer scanned the information and found that wine and silk imports from France declined while the corresponding exports from Scotland of wool and certain foods also dropped. (This does not prove that the changes were due to the Napoleonic wars — this is a matter of interpretation — but the machine did identify the facts and allowed the historians to make the judgement.)

In geography Zipf's Law states that if the towns of any country are listed in order of size, the second will be approximately half the population of the first, the third will be about a third of the first, the fourth about a quarter of the first and so on. One lesson on this began by asking pupils about the largest towns in Scotland and their approximate populations. The answers were then checked by asking the computer to list the towns in order. Zipf's Law was introduced and the computer was asked to match the populations with the predictions of Zipf's Law. This only worked well for the first five: Glasgow, Edinburgh, Aberdeen, Paisley and Dundee. Further investigation showed that if these five were excluded, the others fitted fairly well. On being asked for possible reasons, one pupil suggested that

it did not work for small countries. Naturally the teacher asked how they could check this and received the sensible reply that they should consider another small country. In fact, the law did work for the country suggested by pupils. Another possibility was that it would not work for mountainous countries but, again, when the pupils chose one the results corresponded fairly well. The class continued to construct hypotheses, each one requiring knowledge of geography and, later, history and economics and it was finally decided that the reason for the two sets of Scottish towns each fitting Zipf's Law but not fitting in total was part geographical, part historical and part due to economics. The big towns were following the expansion of the industrial revolution, mainly because of location. There was a separate style of life in the country and fishing areas, giving a different size of town and almost a separate country in Zipf's terms.

Some primary school teachers, when they take the class for a nature ramble, are slightly diffident about the children's collecting insects or twigs or leaves because there can be intractable problems of identification back in class. One interesting package allows the children to bring back their trophies in a glass jar and when the computer asks them what they have found they reply, for example, an INSECT. The machine then asks a series of questions such as "How many legs does it have?", "How many wings does it have?", "What colour is it?" and so on. Finally the computer tells the pupil which insect he has probably found and the teacher can then suggest verifying this in the library and following up the work with a drawing, a story or whatever is suitable.

Drill and Practice

This is an under-rated application, partly because it was overplayed 15 years ago when it was difficult to see other possibilities for computer use. The microcomputer can be used to give very young children left to right eye drill or to aid with colour recognition and matching. After they have had experience of counting materials (four pencils, three cars, five blocks and so on) the machine can be used to give practice or revision by presenting, on the screen, outlines of four yachts or nine buoys depending on the stage reached. It is a very patient instructor and, in remedial education, can provide fresh motivation in arithmetic and English. It offers good

graphics in colour, varied situations, remedial loops, diagnostic assessment and record keeping.

The machine can offer rewards for good work but it is important to be careful about negative reinforcement. In one primary school example, each time a pupil answered correctly a little man on the screen pushed a large boulder closer to the top of a hill. The pupils soon found that it was less fun getting the boulder to the top of the hill and preferred to answer wrongly so that the boulder would roll back on top of the unfortunate individual!

Teachers of language shrink from large vocabulary lists and prefer the children to "absorb" the language in a much more natural way. There will always be some pupils, however, who lag behind. For them it may be attractive to use the stimulus of the computer to build up their own word lists and to use the machine to present, at random, batches of 10 phrases for translation. Early versions of such programs were worthless in certain languages because they did not include accents; now these are available and the material can be attractively presented. Extensions of this idea include the presentation of illustrations on the screen about which the computer will ask questions and offer the pupils options. For example, the scene might be a street in a foreign country. The pupil is invited to enter one of the shops. The next scene will depend on the particular shop chosen as will the subsequent dialogue with other customers and the owner. Clearly this type of package is easily changed from one country to another. Apart from motivation the machine automatically performs the marking and keeps a file on individual pupils for later reference by the teacher. In this, as in many educational computing applications, the machine is not displacing other methods of teaching; it is adding to the teacher's range of options.

Graphical Representation and Sound

Reference has already been made to the value of good graphics or colour in stimulation. Sound is also important but thought has to be given to the mode of use of every package. It would be possible to produce a sound or tune of approval every time a pupil answers correctly and one of disapproval if he makes a mistake. If, however, this is to be run in a room with some children working on other tasks, the noises could be very distracting.

In art, the information storage capability of com-

ters is of value in studying the history of the subject, especially when combined with the power and flexibility of a video disc, but the potential of the machine in colour and graphics has not been investigated to any extent. It is a field with interesting possibilities. Palettes of different colours and shapes are available. The list of shapes might include houses, trees, cars, roads, paths and hills so that when any shape is chosen from the palette it can be moved to any point in the screen and then either increased or decreased in size or rotated. Colours could be allocated to different items and some feel that perspective and composition perhaps be developed.

Some of the most interesting examples combining graphics and sounds are in music. Frequently, music teachers wish to present a short piece of music to pupils and ask them to sight-read it. The computer can present music very successfully on the screen and can then check what the pupil plays, giving whatever level of advice is required if mistakes are made. Another technique is to show the pupil a piece of music and then for the teacher to play it with, perhaps, one note misplayed and the pupil has then to identify the error. Again this is very easily done on the computer using the graphics on the screen and the sound box to play the notes. The music itself can be as complex as the teacher wishes. The whole field of electronic music is increasingly important and is an area under investigation by many educationists.

Teaching the Computer

Teachers have long said that to learn a subject well, one should try teaching it and yet, of course, this is precisely the reverse of what happens in class. Very seldom is a pupil allowed to teach. Bob Taylor of Columbia University, New York, in his book *The Computer, Tool, Tutor and Tutee* defines the last term as placing the computer in a learning situation where the pupil acts as teacher. The best example of this technique is exhibited by the program *Animal*. The pupil is expected to teach the computer how to differentiate between various animals. The dialogue starts by the computer telling the pupil that it knows many animals (an untruth!) and asks if he would like to think of one, after which the computer will try to deduce its name by asking a series of questions. Suppose the pupil thinks of a lion.

Computer: "It is a mammal?"

Pupil: "Yes".

Computer: "Does it live on land?"

Pupil: "Yes".

Computer: "Is it a ferret?" (because this is the only land mammal the computer knows at this time!).

Pupil: "No".

Computer: "I give up. What is it?"

Pupil: "A lion".

Computer: "What question should I ask to tell the difference between a ferret and a lion?"

Pupil: "Is it large?"

Computer: "And the answer for a lion would be?"

Pupil: "Yes".

If the pupil runs the game again, the questions may lead in an entirely different direction but if the answers to the questions "Is it a mammal?", "Does it live on land?" are both in the affirmative, then the computer will not now ask immediately if it is a ferret. It will now ask "Is it large?" and if the answer is "Yes" it will guess a lion but if the answer is "No" then it will guess a ferret. Of course if the pupil has gone on to think of a tiger, the computer would still guess lion (as it is a mammal, lives on land and is large). The pupil would now reject that guess and the computer would ask for the name of the new animal and how to differentiate it from the lion. Clearly if, initially, the pupil is faced with 20 or 30 animals he has to group them into two sub-sets by means of a Yes/No question and then split the sub-sets into two groups by means of similar Yes/No questions and so on until each specific animal is uniquely identified. This is then what he teaches the computer. The exercise provides excellent practice in hierarchical structures and classification and can be applied to many different topics. A variation of this is used at Glasgow University with first year chemistry students teaching the computer the differences between various compounds. The benefits are in the motivation, the classification process and the revision of a wide range of properties of the substances. But, in addition, the lessons taught to the computer by the students are retained for future perusal by the lecturer. If one or two students are seen to be teaching the machine wrongly about the differences between two compounds he could then have a quiet word. If large numbers of the students are making the same mistake then he knows that he should be reconsidering his teaching of that part of the subject.

Conclusion

This short paper has indicated just some of the main attributes and strengths of computers over a variety of curricular contexts. There are many different ways of analysing the potential of the computer. One could include assessment, which is integral to the whole teaching and learning process; records of pupils' work, item calibration, pupil profiles and career guidance; and extend to involve school management and information systems. In one in-service course or in one article, however, only so much information can be presented and it has been found on courses that a useful follow-up is to ask sub-groups of teachers, selected by subject, to take the section headings given above and to consider the potential of the computer used in these ways in

their own field.

To date, the results have been very encouraging with the analyses leading to some highly original ideas. The only certainty is that in this fast moving subject, even more new ideas will be produced and further attributes and strengths identified.

Further Reading

An extended version of this article is being published as a Scottish Microelectronics Program pamphlet.

Walter Beveridge is a member of Her Majesty's Inspectorate, Scotland, and a leading figure in the Scottish Microelectronics Program.

New Technologies and Education

The world is experiencing an information and communication explosion of such magnitude that it is already being predicted that the post-industrial society will be a 'communication society'. Alongside the established media (radio, cinema, over-the-air television), complementing them and widening their scope, we now have sound and vision recording and reproducing devices (tape recorders, video recorders, video disc players), direct broadcast satellites, cable television and the whole range of equipment and services that have come to be known as telematics...

This prodigious leap forward in the field of mass communications, the multiplication of channels and supporting equipment, once again gives rise to great hopes for education. It is as though there were a sort of 'pre-ordained' convergence between the possibilities offered by these new technologies and the enormous growth in educational demand.

The mass media have the capacity to meet the demands of the rapidly rising numbers of those requiring education. They can disseminate an educational programme to millions of people, they can call on the services of the finest specialists available on any of the disciplines it may be thought necessary to incorporate into educational syllabuses, they have access to data banks that are always kept up to date, and they can produce, stock, classify and distribute audiovisual products geared to the needs of both teachers and students. Even the prob-

lems raised by the economic inequalities in the world seem capable of resolution; for although the production of radio and television programmes for schools may at first sight appear costly, the number of students reached means that the cost per student is extremely low. Finally, the flexibility of the new media and the interactive capacity of the more sophisticated systems meet the objections that have been raised concerning the rigidity and constraints of the traditional mass media.

Nevertheless, it is advisable to guard against excessive optimism. To begin with, the new technologies are not developing at the same pace everywhere...

To the problem of the uneven distribution of equipment must be added the disparities to be found in programme production capacity...

When we consider the more negative aspects of the media (their predominantly entertainment role, the inequality of communication resources, the inertia of old habits), we see a future in which the schools and the media are cast as competitors and rivals, having only an oblique contact and influence on each other. The hope for a less bleak future lies, perhaps, in experiments in more decentralized use of the mass means of communication leading to a more constructive collaboration between the schools and the media.

Michel Souchon

From: *The Unesco Courier*, May 1983

Science, computers and education

Michael Wright

Introduction

We are living in the midst of a revolution in communications and information technology which in turn is producing unprecedented socio-economic and industrial change. Computers are at the centre of this transformation, and it is no accident that scientists have been in the forefront of computer development. From the pioneering work of Babbage in the 19th century, to the developments in this century associated with scientists such as Turing, von Neumann, and many others, computers as we know them today would not be possible without the close collaboration of mathematicians, scientists and engineers.

But it is interesting that those scientists and technologists most closely concerned with computer development have rarely concerned themselves with the educational uses of their invention, including the use of computers in the training of scientists. There has been an interest by some psychologists and philosophically-minded scientists in the broader impact of computers, and in the associated disciplines of cybernetics, information theory and artificial intelligence, *e.g.* Norbert Wiener, C. Shannon, J. Von Neumann, C. H. Waddington. But educators are probably more familiar with the work of B. F. Skinner and his advocacy of programmed learning, and, more recently, of Seymour Papert and his school of specialists at MIT who have developed and enthusiastically proselytised the use of the 'educational' computer language LOGO, and the associated 'TURTLE'.

Given the background of headlong development of computers of the last half-century — culminating in the use of the ubiquitous microchip in the so-called 'fourth generation' machines currently in use — it is not surprising that some enthusiasts are making extreme claims for computers. Typical of these is the recent assertion by a Californian computer scientist, as reported in the press, that computers would be making mankind redundant and take over the running of our planet within the next 100 years. There have also been confident predictions that teachers will be largely replaced by computers,

and equally confident assertions that teachers cannot be replaced in this simple-minded fashion. This article seeks to explore some ways in which computers may supplement and enhance the work of educators in the classroom and laboratory, and how an appropriate computer package may be put together.

Technical Background: What Computers Can Do

During the last few years in the UK every school and educational institution has acquired a computer system of some sort — usually the microcomputer, though these are becoming so sophisticated that they might soon rival the larger mini and mainframe computers only large institutions can afford. At the same time there has been a boom in the use of home computers as costs have plummeted while the sophistication, flexibility and ease of use of these devices have increased. It is now expected that one in ten homes in the UK will have a computer by the end of 1984, and with the computer industry constantly transforming itself as at present, the computer will soon be as common in the home as the colour TV or telephone. As users soon discover, though, a computer, like a TV set, depends on appropriate programs for its effective use. And it is the quality, appropriateness and expense of software and peripherals, of service and maintenance, and not least the effective training of the user, which is all too often overlooked by the novice, whether in the home, office or educational context. Indeed, without care in the choice of these important items and components, computers in many schools can become expensive white elephants gathering dust in store-rooms like so much expensive AV and programmed learning equipment of a previous decade.

However, assuming an appropriate package has been put together, what to do with it? Most people associate computers with 'computing': *i.e.* large number crunching operations too numerous or complex for the ordinary human mind. But computers are not simply very fast calculators: they offer much more sophisticated applications, the most important of which is probably modelling or simulation. In

addition they can be programmed *inter alia* to process and edit words, solve complex mathematical equations and prove theorems, acquire and store vast quantities of information, control a wide variety of operations and equipment, play games of increasing complexity (including chess), and communicate with one another in data networks. They may also be integrated with audio-video media (including books, films, slides, cassettes) to form interactive video packages which have already proved their worth in making the training of industrial staff more effective and enjoyable.

And this is not all: such facilities are characteristic of the present fourth generation (microchip) computers: research is far developed on fifth generation computers which will make artificial intelligence machines and advanced automation possible, and perhaps even raise such questions as what is intelligence, what is human, and what are humans for?

Choosing A Suitable Computer System

Leaving such philosophical questions for the moment, how should the individual teacher go about choosing a suitable computer system, given that such a choice exists? Alternatively, how may an existing system be adapted for particular needs? Both questions could hardly have arisen a decade or more ago when individuals could hardly hope to purchase a computer, when computer systems tended to be tailor-made to the particular usage of the customer, and when peripherals and training were often included in the package. Nowadays, this is not so, and all users need to review their needs and practices in the face of rapid technical change. Obvious considerations are related to cost, flexibility, power (usually memory capacity is more important than speed for educational use), maintenance, and the software and peripherals that can be added on to the primary system.

Many large institutions possess mainframe computers with ancillary staff, but the small department will probably be content with a suitable number of mini- or micro-computers, many of which can interface with the mainframe of a larger institution via time sharing, or network with other micros. These networking and interfacing facilities will be of increasing importance in the future, not only for local area networks (LANs) within an institution, but also for networking over large distances, with profound

implications for distance learning. The private home computer owner is also likely to benefit from these developments, which amongst other facilities allow multiple use of a single large machine and also the ability to communicate with other enthusiasts.

Apart from these general considerations, some specific suggestions may be of use:

Preliminary study and research: It is well worth consulting disinterested experts who are not trying to sell a particular model or system, visit computer shows to see systems demonstrated in an informative and competitive environment, and study a selection of popular computer magazines before making the financial commitment to an inappropriate system which might prove hard to reverse. Equally important is for the teacher to identify the potential uses of the intended system, though once acquired more and more applications tend to present themselves, which again suggests the need for a flexible system.

Hardware, which includes a central computer, video screen and peripherals such as disk drive or (cheaper) cassette units, which marshal information into and out of the central processor, need careful choice. For first time users a well tried and inexpensive system with sufficient inherent or 'add on' memory capacity for projected needs should be considered. Memory capacity is especially important where graphics are required, as in many scientific applications. Reliability, durability (especially of the keyboard) and ease of interfacing with other machines as well as likely maintenance costs and the price of peripherals and software packages should also be taken into account.

Software — computer programs — is becoming increasingly important as the hardware reaches a more or less uniform standard in a given price range. This divides into two categories: *Systems software*, supplied by the manufacturers and including the essential *operating system* — the series of instructions which control the peripherals and allow users to run their own programs. This gives the computer its identity, and the computer cannot function without it. The second category of software is the so-called *applications software*, tailored to fit the given operating system. In general, software will not be tailored specifically for a particular user's needs; a general users' package is provided. The user must find out what range of programs are available.

Language: The choice of language in which programs are supplied or can be written is also important.

nt, and may be limited by the degree of sophistication of the machine. BASIC is a multipurpose language often found in micro and mini software, but the user may wish to employ a more 'high level' specialised language, such as PASCAL, LOGO, COBOL, FORTRAN.

'User friendliness' of the system and ease of operation are important considerations in overcoming 'computer fear' in first time users, and should be a prime consideration for educational uses. Is the operating manual or handbook easy to understand?

Having investigated all these aspects and acquired a suitable system, the user should concentrate on getting familiar with the keyboard, learning an appropriate computer language and following the standard programs written for the system. Then, with expert help where necessary, he should be in a position to write his own programs. A deep understanding of computer architecture, logic and electronics is probably not necessary at this stage.

The Educational Use of Computers:

Some General Considerations

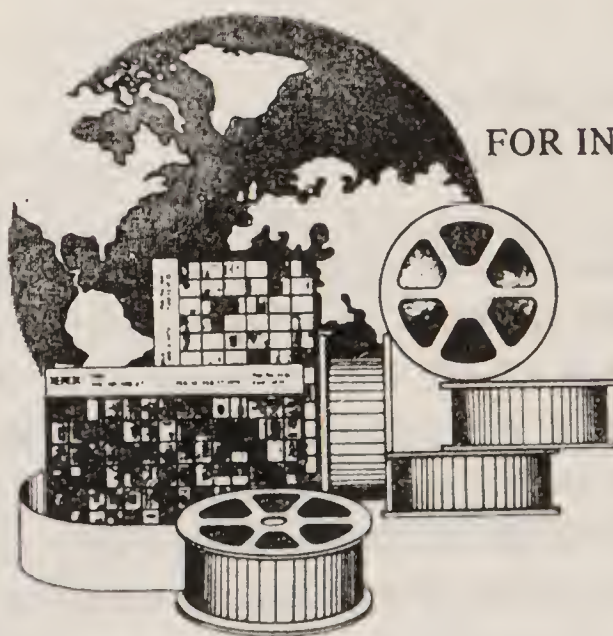
Having obtained and if necessary adapted a suitable system and become familiar with it, the educator is then confronted with the problem of how best to introduce it into the classroom or laboratory in the context of the existing curriculum, and to tailor courses and experiments to utilise the system to give full educational benefit.

A further consideration is what young people today bring to the classroom or laboratory in terms of computer skills and knowledge acquired at home. Though this is often in the context of games and does not necessarily imply a deep knowledge of programming or computer architecture, it does give youngsters the essential confidence and 'hands-on' experience of using computers, including the acquisition of basic keyboard skills, and a familiarity with computer language, usually BASIC. For it is certainly true of computers that 'we learn by doing' as John Dewey put it: one learns about computers by using them, the ultimate aim being to write one's own programs. And young people have demonstrated that they often learn to handle computers much quicker than adults, and often to great effect, though what the minimum age for exposure to computers should be and to what degree is rarely discussed. Indeed, enthusiasts such as Seymour Papert and his fellow workers at MIT who developed the

important new educational language LOGO based on Piagetian ideas would probably argue the sooner the better. Though this may well be the case for *cognitive* development (and even here Piagetians would perhaps concede the need for the young learner to work through the various stages of development before full exposure to the abstract power of the computer), educators might well ponder the implications with regard to the social and emotional development of youngsters exposed for too long, and even addicted to, computers at a tender age. And computer addiction is a well-attested phenomenon, seen in the not-so-young as well, with 'computer freaks' relating to their machines rather than to people.

These considerations would seem to point to the need for the educator to play a guiding and balancing role, as has always been good educational practice, and this in turn implies that the teacher will not be summarily replaced by the computer, though some traditional teaching practices may have to change.

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Computers in the Classroom

A recent major speech by the British Secretary of State for Education and Science has emphasised the need for more science and technology in British schools, beginning with infants and proceeding as a 'core' in the curriculum to school leaving age and beyond. This programme envisages the use of computers as an essential element of the educational process, possible now that each school in Britain has a computer system of some kind.

Although computer studies as such have not yet formally entered the exam-oriented curricula of secondary schools to any great extent, there is a strong need for teachers to acquire computer skills, and to work with specialists in the production of educational programs and software. Apart from attending short, intensive, in-service courses, the educator might well find it advisable to acquire a cheap home computer to practice and develop his computer skills. The educational use of computers, as distinct from their scientific use, has not received much formal attention at any educational level, and they tend to have often been introduced on an ad hoc basis like electronic calculators. As yet, in the UK, there is little evidence of traditional teaching methods in the classroom, tutorial or lecture theatre drastically altering as a result of the computer revolution, but this may soon change. The use of libraries is also bound to change, with most libraries in higher education institutions now going 'on line' for information retrieval and linking their records and catalogues into national and international data networks.

Computers in the Laboratory

While teaching methods have not yet registered the computer revolution to any great extent in the classroom, laboratory routines have been significantly changed. Experimental work and projects form an essential part of any science course, and it is in this area that computers are coming increasingly into their own. For linked to apparatus which has a suitably digital (rather than analogue) output they can make, record, and analyse measurements within and outside the laboratory with a precision, speed and efficiency far beyond the capacity of a human observer. Indeed, the extent to which experiments in some undergraduate laboratories have been computerised raises the question of the educational desirability of this trend. For the thoughtful tutor

might well refrain from the total computerization of experiments in a practical course on the grounds that part of the aim of such a course is to encourage the student's powers of observation, measurement, and analysis, and the manual and intellectual skills that go with these activities.

However, the trend towards digitalization and computer control of equipment by way of microprocessors built in or added on is unlikely to abate, since on grounds of cost alone the handmade analogue meter or laboratory piece in its mahogany and brass case is now a museum piece.

But it is in the field of scientific projects and research that computers come into their own, with their unique ability to simulate, graphically or numerically, complex operations, and to monitor and control, as well as analyse, the data which they generate. Here too, though, it is ultimately the scientists who set up the experiments and those who carry them through who must interpret the results. The use of computers in this field can only increase, and this again poses unanswered questions for the scientific educator.

Conclusion: The Balancing Role of the Educator

The computer and associated information technology are here to stay and are not likely to be dis-invented. Like other human inventions this technology will be assimilated, and is available for good or ill. Far reaching changes are occurring, not only in information science and technology itself, but in all fields which are touched by it. The scientific educator cannot ignore these developments and should seek to come to terms with them. Computer literacy is a necessity in the modern world for both educators and the educated. This implies the ongoing training of teachers in the use of computers as well as a critical and informed stance on their educational uses and impact. For raw information is not the same as the assimilated knowledge which is the mark of the educated person, nor is it the enlightened knowledge which goes with wisdom. While thoughtful scientists and educators do not envisage computers replacing teachers (or parents) they will be seen as a means of enhancing and supplementing the teacher's work, especially for routine and repetitive tasks. Their use in this respect for the education of the handicapped and retarded has been well demonstrated. Their use in distance learning and mass education, especially through interactive

deo, is only beginning to be explored, but their potential here is manifest. The non-industrialized nations have yet to experience the full impact of this new technology, but the computer revolution symbolized by the 'mighty micro' has certainly made Marshall McLuhan's vision of an instantly communicating 'global electronic village' closer to reality. It remains to be seen how the computer will be formally incorporated into the curriculum, but its influence on the informal curriculum of young people in the industrialized nations has been phenomenal. Already the computer is challenging our ideas of numeracy, literacy and data analysis and the skills associated with them. It may well abolish rote learning altogether. It remains for the educator to maintain, and if necessary restore, the balance one associates with humane education, and to ensure that the needs of the whole individual are not neglected in this increasingly intellectual age, where mental pursuits and accomplishments are often overvalued.

It is, in short, to the educator we must turn to ensure that in Norbert Wiener's memorable phrase, computers make possible 'the human use of human beings'. This is both a challenge and an adventure for all who care about the progress of education.

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Think It Over

You can only hope to find a lasting solution to a conflict if you have learned to see the other objectively, but, at the same time, to experience his difficulties subjectively.

(D. Hammarskjöld)

If a man never contradicts himself, the reason must be that he virtually never says anything at all.

(Unamuno)

Hope is a good breakfast, but it is a bad supper.

(Francis Bacon)

Between the conception

And the creation

Between the creation

And the response

Falls the Shadow

(T. S. Eliot)

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Computers and Accessibility

Stephen A. Brain

The Lee Centre is unusual in that it is both a community education centre and a department of University of London Goldsmiths' College, a large educational institution in South East London. The Centre opened in 1973 in response to the possible needs of the local community. It was felt by members of the Goldsmiths' College staff that in addition to the varied and numerous functions of a university institution and a massive centre for adult education, the College should provide educational opportunities for people who had never undertaken a course of extended education.

Since 1973 there have been many developments both in terms of staffing and of the work covered by the Centre. As a department within a large college, Lee Centre has a greater degree of flexibility in terms of how it can respond to student demands than more traditional Adult Education Centres.

The Centre is run by six full-time staff members and has currently more than eight hundred weekly users. These users attend a wide variety of classes and groups. Many of the Centre members are working class men and women wanting a second (or even first) experience of education. The community base allows people who might be nervous of larger educational institutions to have the opportunity to expand their experiences. Part of the work undertaken deals with Adult Basic Education, in particular the basic skills of literacy, language and numeracy.

As I write, there are 120 adult basic education students, and many have now enjoyed the experience of using a microcomputer to help them overcome problems with spelling. Fifteen students use the computer on a regular, weekly basis; and the smallness of the size of this group is due to the limited amount of equipment to which the Centre has access. The Centre has concentrated on spelling in its literacy programme as a first step, though we are hoping shortly to begin using a computer program which will help students with more general writing problems, a ploy which will utilise the microcomputer's printer more extensively.

To date we have used only computer programs devised by ourselves in collaboration with other

college staff. The experience to date indicates that there is a shortage of commercially produced software which meets the needs of the students for whom the Lee Centre has responsibility. This experience seems to be shared by many teachers who are involved with basic literacy programmes; and it would appear true to say that teachers will have to create situations in which they can use their understanding of the teaching/learning processes to either write their own computer programs or telegraph the real nature of their classroom needs to those who are working in the commercial field. The creation of educationally useful microcomputer programs is one major problem: another problem concerns the steps that need to be taken to introduce students (and teachers) to microcomputing in the first place.

Reaction to Microcomputing

When we introduced the microcomputer into the Lee Centre a few years ago, there was an immediate reaction to the arrival of this example of new technology.

'What can we do with it and who's going to use it?'

'Do we really need it?'

Students, particularly the younger ones, were less intimidated by its arrival than some members of the staff. Women were more reticent than men. However, most thoughts about the equipment from staff and students seemed to be framed by indifference or a fear of the unknown — the 'unknown' that gives rise to feelings of powerlessness and alienation.

Of course, the artefacts of technology *can* be intimidating. Feelings of bafflement are produced by the jargon used by those who have gained a familiarity with computer technology. What do 'BAM', 'ROM', 'RAM', 'BYTES' and 'Daisy chaining' (to name but a few) all mean? Am I an inferior person by not knowing what they mean? Do I need to be able to bandy such jargon about before I can sit at a microcomputer and make it work? To those who find the experience bewildering it would appear that the computer has tended to develop its own mystique

and helped to create 'computer fear' as a consequence.

Accessibility

It would appear that microcomputing (or computing generally), with its complex terminology, erects many barriers to understanding which tend to be off-putting to those new to this area of work. A barrier of words confronts the novice. This language barrier impedes access to the skill to be learned, and this lack of accessibility is a negative reinforcement to learning. The individual, confronted by a stream of 'meaningless' terms linked to a new piece of equipment, tends to react with degrees of hostility towards it.

Of course, one respects the fact that most areas of education and employment possess language codes which are specific to the individual tasks involved, codes which are built up of keywords, phrases, and verbal shorthands. Normally this 'task' language is acquired gradually as an outcome of participation in any given activity, and the individual concerned is motivated to learn such 'task' language because it aids rather than hinders his/her performance and enjoyment of the work. But rarely does one find a situation in which the 'task' language is so extensive, so alien to previous experience, so bewildering from the outset that it tends to close the door to skill-acquisition, to accessibility, soon after an individual makes a start in acquiring it; and yet this is what seems to be happening with computing. If one is to exploit the many benefits to be gained from computers and computer-assisted learning across the whole curriculum (including all of the 'Arts'-based subjects), one must seek to encourage the computer's use and not alienate potential users by the over-use of verbal codes.

My own limited experiences have demonstrated to me that there are very few terms used in microcomputing that cannot be either 'translated', dispensed with altogether, or explained in a more easily understood, accessible, form. This seems to be an important component of any programme aimed at encouraging people to seek an involvement with computers or, for that matter, any part of the developing technology.

If ease of use is to be a criterion for development of new technology, how do we set about promoting this? My own experience leads me to believe that computers, particularly microcomputers, must be

'made ordinary' or 'normalised' in the minds of the users. The microcomputer must become an everyday object that one uses, reaching for it as one would an electric kettle or tape recorder. A crucial factor is how the machine is perceived by those using it, and this is particularly so in the classroom or workshop setting.

At the Lee Centre, our own use of the microcomputer reflects an integrated approach to its use. It is used only as part of any teaching session, not the whole of it. By using it for short periods of time, we prevent a build-up of 'fear' and allow both student and tutor to become familiar with the hardware involved. Familiarity is encouraged by the physical presence of the hardware within the teaching area, thereby making accessibility easy.

Relevance

Obviously, the work undertaken on the computer must be relevant to the learning situation concerned. However, 'relevance' in a wider context may embrace the relevance of microcomputing, and within this area of activity the question as to whether or not users should be able to program their computers. This poses a problem that is not easily solved. Does the student or teacher need to be able to program a computer or is it satisfactory for them to use (and rely upon) professionally designed packages? One does not need programming skills to use a computer, but the lack of such skills does leave the user to the tender mercies of those companies that produce program packs. This situation could lead teachers into using externally produced programs uncritically because they do not understand microcomputing sufficiently to influence the design of such software.

If the aim of any educational process is to encourage new experience, why should computer programming be an exception merely because it is considered, by some, to be 'too difficult' for ordinary people to master? Certainly, teachers need to develop an understanding of programming if they are to take over the use of microcomputers in the classroom and thereby ensure that the programs used are 'educationally relevant' rather than solely commercially profitable.

Conclusion

It should be one of the aims of education for the teacher to help people use new technology rather

than be frightened by it. The faster technology rushes away from the individual in terms of complexity, either real or imagined, the more powerless that individual becomes to control it. The computer, as a significant feature of this technology, is not going away; and it is important that all those concerned with educating, particularly those involved with promoting access study, are in on the 'ground-floor' of its development so that as many people as possible may have the chance to use it.

Further Reading

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Stephen Brain is at the Lee Centre, Goldsmiths' College, London.

The shape of things to come? The World Centre for Information and Human Resources — Paris

Visitors to Paris who have an interest in computer education could find a visit to the Centre Mondial Informatique et Ressources Humaines in the elegant Avenue Matignon near the Champs-Élysées worthwhile. For there they will find a centre which aims to be a prototype for a new age, in which computers and ordinary people around the world will be brought together in a fruitful dialogue in which the micro will become an integral part of world culture. The product of a brief union between a French publisher and politician, Jacques Servan-Schreiber, and an American Professor of Mathematics and Education at MIT, Seymour Papert, it aims to have an impact on computer education not only in the developed countries, but also in the Third World. Since its inception in March 1982 it has already passed through a stormy phase in which Papert, author of the best selling *Mindstorms* and developer of the high-level educational computer language LOGO, parted company with the Centre and returned, with some of his close associates, to the US.

However, the Centre remains, functioning as it was intended to do as an 'open door' on computer use on its ground floor, as well as a 'think tank' and research centre on the upper floors. A visit on a rainy November Sunday afternoon last year revealed the ground floor crowded with youngsters (mostly male) who had brought their own home-made programs along to try them out with or without the aid of the discreetly helpful staff on the freely accessible machines on display. On the upper floors an international conference on LOGO was in progress (closed to the public). The atmosphere was convivial, but there did not seem to be much informational material — brochures, guides, etc — available. Was it preaching to the converted? I counted only a dozen or so enthusiasts at work: Could such a small centre cater for the mass of people it was trying ostensibly to reach? Had the Centre lost momentum and direction with the departure of Papert and his colleagues? Was it too oriented towards the French computer industry? Was its work, despite some initial success in Senegal, really transferable to the Third World? Was LOGO a sufficiently sophisticated language to justify the far-reaching aims of the Centre in making computers and programming as accessible as the transistor radio?

These were some of the thoughts which struck one on reflection. But there can be little doubt that here was an educational experiment to be watched and perhaps imitated.

MICHAEL WRIGHT

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Computers, Graphics and perhaps a little education

John Jessel

I am very impressed with that computer program on distillation.'

'What does it do?'

'It asks you to name the apparatus that is necessary to carry out distillation in the typical school chemistry laboratory.'

'What is impressive about that?'

'Well, when you type in the name of one of the necessary bits of apparatus it draws a picture of it on the TV screen.'

'Is that all?'

'No, it also places an item in the position that it will ultimately occupy in relation to all the other things which have to be included.'

'So, for example, if I were to type in the word "flask" the computer would draw a flask.'

'Yes, and it would also leave room below for a bunsen burner and a tripod as well as leaving room on one side for a condenser.'

'What happens if I type in something that is not used in distillation, such as a burette?'

'The words "BURETTE NOT RECOGNISED" appear on the screen.'

'And what happens when all the correct words have been typed in?'

'Oh, it's great! The apparatus is connected as it would be in a laboratory and a flame appears from the bunsen burner, the liquid in the flask bubbles and the vapour, which is drawn as a series of moving dots, spreads up the flask and through the condenser. You can then watch the vapour condense back into a liquid which then drips into a beaker.'

'So it's an animated diagram.'

'Yes, that's right. It's all in colour and there is even a thermometer which shows the change in tem-

perature. It's a superb piece of programming.'

'It may be a superb piece of programming, but is it a superb way to learn about distillation?'

'Yes. It uses pictures to reinforce the learning.'

'What learning exactly is being reinforced?'

'Learning about distillation of course.'

'Learning what about distillation?'

'How it works.'

'But suppose that I was doing this program and instead of typing in words associated with distillation I type in words associated with something quite different such as filtration. What would happen?'

'The computer would just say that it didn't recognise those words.'

'Alright, but then suppose that in desperation I type in the name of any bit of laboratory apparatus I should think of until the program works. Then it wouldn't really make much difference if the program was about filtration, distillation or making carbon dioxide for that matter. The fact that there was an animated drawing of a distillation process on the screen would be incidental.'

'But you have to remember the words connected with distillation.'

'But nothing *about* distillation: all that would be happening is that I would be merely parroting a vocabulary that would be relatively salient. It would be salient because I would be working in the context of a school chemistry course where the same pieces of apparatus are used in a variety of situations and referred to frequently.'

'I take your point, but seeing the animated diagram helps one to recall how the apparatus is set up.'

'Recall or recognise?'

'What do you mean?'

'Do you drive?'

'Yes.'

'Then what does a clearway sign look like?'

'It's blue, circular, and it has a red bar running diagonally across it.'

'One bar, or is it two bars?'

'One, I think.'

'Does the diagonal line run from top right to bottom left or from top left to bottom right?'

'I don't know.'

'But you would know a clearway sign if you saw one, wouldn't you?'

'Yes.'

'In other words you can recognise a clearway sign even if you cannot recall it exactly. At least that's what I mean by recall.'

'What has that got to do with distillation?'

'In a way it is the converse of the situation where there is no point in recalling exactly how the individual signs are constructed. In the laboratory it is unlikely that you would simply have to recognise whether this or that particular configuration of apparatus is suitable for carrying out distillation. It is more likely that given a supply of glass tubes and so forth you would have to recall how to construct a distillation unit.'

'So you are saying that working through the program is not a valid learning activity as far as the laboratory situation is concerned.'

'That's right. Moreover, I don't even think that it's valid in terms of the way that one is likely to be assessed. One would probably be required to draw a suitable diagram or provide a suitable description from memory, and I think that one would be best equipped to do that from an understanding of the principles of distillation rather than by trying to recall the names of bits of laboratory hardware.'

'But I still think that something is learned as one is actively involved.'

'What! Just because you have to type in one word at a time in order to make something happen in a

picture on a screen! In a way I would say that is rather passive, certainly as far as thinking is concerned.'

'Why?'

'Because you are simply given another opportunity to repeat the kind of vocabulary that you would have been exposed to in a chemistry lesson. The computer program does not invite you to think about the diagram in any way. The animation is very pretty but hardly thought-provoking.'

'Then you give me an example of a program that uses graphics and encourages active thought.'

'Yes, one program I know shows a side-on view of a bath. It has water taps and a drainage plug. You can also see the level of the water. The drawing takes up the top half of the TV screen while the bottom half is occupied by a graph. The height of the graph corresponds to the level of water in the bath and the time in minutes is marked out along the bottom of the graph from left to right.'

'Do you have to draw the graph?'

'The graph draws itself in a way. When you first run the program the bath is empty and along the bottom of the graph you see a dot slowly moving and leaving a horizontal trail as it goes. The first thing I did was to press the key which turned on the taps. However, the bath didn't fill: in fact the water level remained at zero.'

'That's because you forgot to put in the plug!'

'That's what I discovered. When you press another key to put in the plug the water level begins to rise and at the same time the dot on the graph moves up a bit. The level rises slowly and so the corresponding upward movement of the dot is slow, and as it is also moving from left to right as the minutes tick by the upward slope of the graph is, therefore, not very steep. If you turn the taps off, the graph levels out corresponding to the new height of the water, and if you then remove the plug the graph slopes downwards as the water level lowers.'

'Right, I've got the idea. You press a key and something happens. Is that any different from the distillation program?'

'Suppose I asked you to predict from the graph I have just described what would happen if the bath

as almost full and the drainage plug removed but the taps left running. Would the bath overflow, would the water level go down or would the water remain almost brimming?’

‘You have already said that the water-level remains at zero if you turn on the taps with the plug out, so that could be for two reasons. Firstly, the water might drain at exactly the same rate as it comes from the taps. Or, secondly, the water might drain away more quickly than it can be added from the taps. Well then it is obvious the bath won’t overflow so the question is whether or not the water level will go down.’

‘The downward slope of the graph when the water drains with the taps off is steeper than the upward slope when the bath is filling.’

‘So the bath can be emptied quicker than it can be filled and therefore the water level will go down. Do you see that you have to think about what is going on and not just what the program does?’

‘No, there are one or two more features. You can put a man in or out of the bath and that can have a rather drastic effect on the water level. However, the feature which I like is the ability of the computer to record a sequence of events which you type in. That sequence can be replayed but instead of showing the picture and the graph together you can choose to show just the graph on its own or alternatively only the picture.’

‘No doubt then you’re saying that you could turn the program into some kind of game.’

‘Yes, and I think that a lot of useful mental activity is generated through, for example, working out what type of graph would represent a given sequence of actions shown on the screen, or for that matter what particular sequence of events a particular graph may be representing. You can replay the sequence as many times as you like, and also show the picture and graph together again so that you can compare your solutions with those provided by the computer.’

‘It may stimulate active thought for some people but I wonder if everybody would think of using the program in these ways.’

‘Some might not, but if that was in school then I would argue that it is within the role of the teacher to intervene. The point is that the computer should be a tool which can be used flexibly. A program as it exists may be used in a variety of ways and occasionally it might have to be altered or adapted.’

‘Hang on, I’ve got the idea! You know that distillation program I was telling you about . . .’

John Jessel is at the AVE Centre, Goldsmiths’ College, London.

From Our Columns

Teachers who have had the opportunity of studying the growth of spontaneous activities among children between four and eight have been amazed by their intense appreciation of colour and form. In examining the crude and varied products of the child’s activity a trained observer is immediately struck by one characteristic: a passion for what is beautiful. The young child, in contemplating his finished work, evidently feels he has made a contribution to beauty. The arrangement of colours and forms, the rhythm and symmetry in young children’s work undoubtedly reveal a real creative impulse underlying these experiments with the senses. The child loves big necklaces of vivid, coloured balls to satisfy his desire for ornament; he rejoices in big blobs of coloured paint thrown on to

paper; he will top his brick houses with all sorts of objects with decorative contours. Music releases lovely gracious movements; the child gazes with wide-eyed admiration at pictures which please him; he pricks up his ears to catch the rhythm of verses and songs; with eager fingers he learns the feel of things and what they are made of; he takes a never-ending delight in organizing processions and acting stories. All these activities are aspects of childhood’s art. Let us do all we can to preserve this period of development.

M. Audemars

Directrice of La Maison des Petits, Geneva.
“The Child’s Sense of the Beautiful”,
N.E. Feb. 1936.

The Future and The Bomb

Summary of a lecture by the Rt Revd John Austin Baker

Editor's Note: 'The Future and The Bomb' was the topic chosen by the Rt Revd John Austin Baker, Bishop of Salisbury, for the 1983 Marc Goldstein Memorial Lecture in London. Bishop Baker chaired the Church of England's study group on 'The Church and The Bomb' which reported in February 1983 to the Church of England's General Synod. Helen Connell provides this summary.

'The ultimate paradox [of following the deterrence theory], the essential irrationality of our situation, ... is this: that nuclear weapons are impossible to use, but that we shall always need more and newer ones.' Bishop Baker's central concern, in his closely argued lecture, was to analyse the implications of basing defence strategies on the theory of nuclear deterrence. In turn, he discussed the weaponry implications of strategies advanced over the last 30 or so years by nuclear powers: Mutually Assured Destruction and Mutually Assured Unacceptable Damage; Flexible Response; No first use; First strike; and, most recently, sustained nuclear conflict.

Reliance on the theory of deterrence has, he said, inexorably led the superpowers to move step by step away from the notion of 'minimum deterrence' towards seeking 'maximum security' — i.e. towards deploying increasingly sophisticated weapons systems. This merely carries deterrence theory to its logical conclusion, because no single position amongst those advanced can be shown to guarantee that the 'enemy', in some conceivable situation, might not be prepared to launch a war. As a means of maintaining the peace, then, deterrence theory is seen to be fundamentally flawed.

One can argue against nuclear weapons also on other grounds. Not only are they extremely costly in terms of human and financial resources, and potential environmental pollution, but the opportunity costs mean that less skilled manpower and fewer resources are available to tackle problems of population and poverty and other social needs. Of key concern to the Bishop, however, was the effect of nuclear arms on the world spiritual climate. 'The very existence of nuclear weapons poisons and distorts all international relations.' He characterised the

present climate as one of both fear and mistrust.

Our key concern, then, must be to check and reverse the arms race — in particular to eliminate and outlaw nuclear and all other weapons of mass destruction. For this to happen, however, widespread education is needed as part of a strategy.

From popular discussion, questions at public meetings and points raised in letters during the course of 'The Church and The Bomb' study group, Bishop Baker became aware that many people lacked both knowledge about nuclear warfare, and the ability to engage in relevant argument about it. Public education on these points is essential but difficult.

The most basic difficulty is that few people in this country have an adequate grounding in science. Terms like 'radiation' and 'radioactivity', then, are not properly understood. This ignorance is found even at the highest levels, where inappropriate responses pose real dangers to society.

'Experience of the public debate on nuclear weapons ... has convinced me of the need for a massive and urgent campaign of public education in this complex field.'

'For many years to come ... the "future" and the "Bomb" will go together ... one urgent task of education, especially in the West, is to get this fact across.'

Through his discussion of deterrence theory, the Bishop illustrated the complexity of understanding the human and technical aspects of the nuclear weapons field, as well as the need for sustained logical argument within it. One must first be able to clear one's mind of irrelevant beliefs, such as the belief in parity. Parity has relevance for conventional warfare, but the nature of nuclear weapons calls for a new logic of use. Education will assist in exposing the fallacies of the deterrence theory.

This lecture will be published in full in *The Bomb and the Classroom*, University of London Institute of Education, 1984.

Forthcoming Conferences and Lectures

Who Needs The Arts? The Arts in Education for International Understanding and Peace

32nd WEF International Conference. On: August 12-18 1984. At: Utrecht, Holland. Details: WEF National Section Secretaries, or WEF General Secretary (for addresses, see inside back cover).

Records of Achievement for all School Leavers — Challenges for Implementation

WEF (Great Britain) May Conference 1984. At: University of Bath. On: May 26. Details: Jack Whitehead, School of Education, University of Bath, Bath, UK.

Peace Education Network Annual Conference

On: July 20-22. At: Beechwood College, Leeds, UK. Details: Stefanie Duczek, York Peace Centre, 15a Clifford Street, York YO1 1RG, UK. Phone (0904) 642493.

Keeping Up With The Times: New Notions and Modern Methods

National Institute of Adult Continuing Education (England and Wales) Annual Study Conference. On April 10-12. At: University College of North Wales at Bangor. Details: NIACE, 19B De Montfort Street, Leicester LE1 7GE. Phone (0533) 551451.

Youth Counselling

Eleventh International Round Table for the Advancement of Counselling. On: August 5-9. At: University of Aarhus, Denmark. Details: Derek Hope, Brunel University, Uxbridge, Middlesex UB8 3PH, UK.

World Studies and Peace Education

Dunamis/World Studies Teacher Training Centre Lecture Series. In: June-July (six lectures at weekly intervals). At: St James's Church, Piccadilly, London, UK. Details: Dunamis, 197 Piccadilly, London W1. Phone (01) 437 6851.

The fiftieth issue of 'IDEAS'

Leslie A. Smith, Editor of *IDEAS*, writes:

The title "IDEAS" has always carried two meanings: firstly, 'ideas' in the normal sense and as far as they emerged from the field of education, and secondly, a contrived title which stood for 'interdisciplinary enquiry Association'. The notion of interdisciplinary enquiry had been developed at Goldsmiths' College in 1965 and the interest this event aroused prompted us to create the Curriculum Laboratory at the college in 1966. *IDEAS* emerged as a vehicle of communication for the Curriculum Laboratory in November 1966, with the first issue being published on the occasion of a massive conference we had arranged under the title 'Everybody can grow' in February 1967.

In 1968, *IDEAS* became the curriculum journal of Goldsmiths' College and as its editor I was given the support of a representative Editorial Board. This was chaired successively by Sir Ross Chesterman, Professor James Britton, Dr Tony Weaver, Dr Rex Andrews and Dr Michael Wright.

When economic conditions obliged Goldsmiths' College to reconsider its budget, *IDEAS* was forced to cease publication internally after

the completion of *IDEAS* No. 33, but was rescued as a journal by *The New Era* and the Guiding Committee of the World Education Fellowship. Dr Weaver was at this time both Editor of *The New Era* and Chairman of the *IDEAS* Board. The merger of the journals took place in January 1976, and seventeen issues of *IDEAS* later we come to *IDEAS* No. 50 in this issue of *The New Era*.

IDEAS now moves on. It is planned for the journal to return to its home-base at Goldsmiths' College and to concentrate more closely on needs emerging in the British educational scene.

In saying farewell to the readership of *The New Era*, I would like to thank all who have been involved with the publication of *IDEAS* Nos. 34 to 50, highly conscious of the fact that without the generous support given to us by the World Education Fellowship and its journal, *IDEAS* would have ended its run back in 1976 instead of reaching the landmark of its fiftieth issue in 1984. The Editorial Board of *IDEAS* hopes that you have enjoyed the contributions we have made to *The New Era*, and we wish our host journal every success as it continues its role in the international arena of educational debate.

Reviews

*Computer Power and Human Reason:
From Judgement to Calculation*

by Joseph Weizenbaum

Pelican Books, 1984, £2.95

On 2 February, just when the media in general were running out of permutations to play in the linkages between George Orwell, 1984, and the human condition, the *Daily Telegraph* announced in a front page headline that 'Tax staff lose fight against computer'. In a test case ruling that journalist Terence Shaw claimed would 'directly affect hundreds of Inland Revenue staff, and could have wider implications for hundreds of thousands of workers facing adjustment to the technological revolution', Mr Justice Walton dismissed with costs a claim brought by members of the Inland Revenue Staff Federation that the change in work required to operate a new central PAYE computer went beyond their existing contracts of employment, and so could not be imposed on them without their consent.

Two things strike me, as I imagine they would have struck Joseph Weizenbaum had he read the *Daily Telegraph* on that Thursday morning in early February: the staff are reported as having lost their fight with a computer, not with their employers; and their complaint was that the introduction of the computer would force them into a situation where they were doing less demanding work, not more. According to Mr Justice Walton, the complaints from the tax officers that they would lose opportunities to exercise discretion and judgement were wholly misconceived. Their function had always been basically to apply a well-defined rule book, and the introduction of the computer was simply an up-to-date method for dealing with routine bulk problems. The jobs done by those who operated the system were precisely the same as before the computer was installed.

Weizenbaum would have sided with the tax inspectors. Undoubtedly, he would regard the subtitle of his book, *From judgement to calculation*, as an expression of their condition — their human judgement replaced by computer calculation, their human reason by computer power. When the tax inspector did the work, it called for 'discretion and judgement'. When the employers were convinced

that the time had been reached when the computer could do it, it became 'rule-following'.

It cannot be said that Weizenbaum did not warn us long ago of the possibility of having to face such situations, in which human judgement about computers can potentially affect the lives of hundreds of thousands of people. The first edition of this controversial book was published in America in 1976. It caused a stir then, especially among the artificial intelligence fraternity, and was variously described as 'a towering milestone in the history of attempts to understand the significance of computers', 'a definitive integration of technology and humanistic thought' and in the eyes of the reviewer for *Psychology Today* (an American glossy which Weizenbaum himself describes as a 'scientific cafeteria'), as 'the best book I have read on the impact of computers on society, and on technology, and on man's image of himself'. Now we can find it, unchanged except for the addition of a new preface, on our bookshelves in paperback beside the fast disappearing copies of 1984.

At first sight this is a deeply pessimistic book. One gets the feeling that the author must have been deeply disturbed when he started to write it. His starting point is in Piagetian terms, concrete — a description of the shock he experienced when it seemed that the whole world was intent upon misinterpreting his now famous computer program, Eliza. Like Eliza of Pygmalion fame, this natural language analysis program could be taught to 'speak' increasingly well. Because conversations had to be about something, Weizenbaum chose to make Eliza parody the role of a Rogerian non-directive psychotherapist engaged in the initial interview with a patient. This made things relatively easy, because all Eliza had to do was to reflect the patient's statements back to him or her. The program was a collection of routines for analysing sentences and sentence fragments, locating words in texts, assembling words from sentences, and so on. It had no real-world knowledge of psychotherapy, or anything else. And yet people thought it was a very great deal more than its author knew it to be: practising psychiatrists seriously believed it could lead to automated psychotherapy; people became emotionally attached to the

anthropomorphized computer terminal; academics believed that it demonstrated a general solution to the problem of computer understanding of natural language; and all this despite the author's protestations that it was nothing of the sort.

These reactions brought home to Weizenbaum more vividly than any previous experience the enormously exaggerated attributes an even well-educated audience is capable of making, even strives to make, to a technology it does not understand. Why should people seem to want to see machines as if they were people? The answer is straightforward and rather disturbing—because people already conceive people as machines.

Weizenbaum does not put the question and the answer in such simple terms. Starting on his own doorstep, the 'temple of technology' that is the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, he describes how in his day-to-day living with colleagues and students he is confronted with an ever more highly rationalistic view of society and an ever more mechanistic image of man. Then over several chapters, including those ostensibly devoted to such technical problems as how computers actually work, he goes on to explore tenaciously such questions as whether or not every aspect of human thought is reducible to an entirely computable logical formalism, how it can be that rationality has been (as he would put it) tragically twisted so as to be equated with logicity, how an irrational confidence in the calculability of reality has come to characterise the processes of human decision-making.

In due course he homes in on what seems to be his personal target—the American artificial intelligence community. Or, more correctly, on its failure to appreciate the damage caused by the use of a particular metaphor to guide and to justify AI research. Weizenbaum traces the development of what he describes as the 'computer metaphor' all the way from its roots in the work of Alan M. Turing in 1936 to its seemingly unassailable position in the minds of his fellow computer scientists in the mid-seventies. It started as a technical question; since a universal Turing machine (a computer) can follow any effective procedure (a set of rules in a precise and unambiguous language which is an alphabet, usually coded in binary digits, and a set of transformation rules which are themselves unambiguous), is it possible to reduce all human decision-making to effective procedures and hence

render it amenable to machine computation? Before he even asks this question Weizenbaum has already taken the reader through the reverse process, establishing that a human can certainly imitate a universal Turing machine. Since we can all learn to imitate such machines, we are by definition at least such machines ourselves. But the question remains: are we only such machines?

For Weizenbaum the answer is an unequivocal and passionate 'No'. He sees nothing wrong with viewing man as an information processor or problem solver, nor with attempting to understand him from these perspectives, provided that we never act as though any single perspective can comprehend the whole man. He presents a convincing case, however, on the basis of their published works, that many of the leading and acknowledged authorities in computer science in America are (or were in the mid-seventies) convinced that the answer is 'Yes'. His argument develops until he is claiming, with substantial evidence to support his conclusion, that the dream, expressed in their own words, of the artificial intelligentsia is to bring into the world 'machines that think, that learn, and that create', and whose ability to do these things will increase until 'the range of problems they can handle will be co-extensive with the range to which the human mind has been applied'. The computer metaphor which guides their work is, according to Weizenbaum, no longer a question, no longer even a metaphor, but a conviction that man is machine. The question is no longer technical; it is ethical.

As the argument mounts, Weizenbaum's sense of isolation from his colleagues at MIT becomes steadily more apparent in his writing. His is a voice crying in an ethical wilderness. The book is a personal crusade, and it reaches a personal climax in his recollection of a debate with Professor John McCarthy, Director of the AI Laboratory at MIT. McCarthy puts the question to Weizenbaum: 'What do judges know that we cannot tell a computer?', and then goes on to say that since the answer is, of course, 'Nothing', it is perfectly appropriate for artificial intelligence to strive to build machines for making judicial decisions. Weizenbaum does not tell us the answer he gave during the debate—but his considered response is in the book: 'What could be more obvious than the fact that, whatever intelligence a computer can muster, however it may be acquired, it must always and necessarily be abso-

lutely alien to any and all authentic human concerns? The very asking of the question... is a monstrous obscenity. That it has to be put into print at all, even for the purpose of exposing its morbidity, is a sign of the madness of our times.' His answer is supported by appeal to the works of Plato, Spinoza, Hume, Mill, Gandhi, Erikson, Poincare, Bruner, and many others, but it is also felt in his very bones.

The book ends with an appeal to teachers of computer science. If anyone is to read anything into his book, then Weizenbaum wants his fellow teachers to note his affirmation that the computer is a powerful new metaphor for helping us understand many aspects of the world, but that it enslaves the mind that rests only upon instrumental reason and has no understanding or experience of risk, courage, trust, endurance and overcoming—of the things that make us whole.

Of course, all this was written eight years ago, and in the fast moving microprocessor-driven world of computer science and information technology, perhaps everything has changed. This is 1984, not 1976. A whole generation of computers have come and gone, and a whole new generation of children have got their hands on the new technology. Have attitudes changed? Has the man-as-machine metaphor been discredited? Not according to Weizenbaum. In his preface to the 1984 Penguin edition he comes across as someone who sees himself just as isolated ideologically as he was in 1976. He remains just as pessimistic about the future of our common humanity. He interprets the American experience of the last decade as a culture in decline—the idolization of the kind of rationality required to program computers, the legitimation of science as the only source of valid knowledge, the psychic numbing and violence without guilt engendered by computer games, the denigration of dreaming and feeling, the elevation of calculation above judgement—all these validate in Weizenbaum's mind the cultural pessimism expressed in the original edition of the book. He has one forlorn hope—that things might be different, 'more civilised', in the United Kingdom, where he hopes the new edition of his book will be read as 'a warning'.

It is certainly well worth reading. Paradoxically, despite all its pessimism, I found in the book a constant source of hope. Perhaps it is the tenacity of Weizenbaum's own human spirit in the face of the closed ranks of the artificial intelligentsia that carries

the message of hope? Perhaps it is my cultural background that makes it easy for me to identify with him? Maybe we Irish are 'more civilised'? Or perhaps it is the colleagues I work with, or the teachers and pupils I meet in schools? Weizenbaum would not feel ideologically alone over here, I feel sure. One of the blessings that the combined competence and ineptitude of the Microelectronics Education Programme and the Department of Industry Scheme for Microcomputers in Schools have bestowed upon us is an alert and sceptical teaching profession which would no more accept the man-as-machine or machine-as-man metaphors as fly in the air. Come to think of it, that's another thing that makes us different from machines—we can't fly, but we can imagine ourselves doing it—machines, as far as I know, are the other way round.

I wonder if Mr Justice Walton would have ruled the same way if someone had called Professor John McCarthy to the stand to declare his conviction that judges could be replaced by computers. Maybe it is in his, as well as our best interests, to elevate judgement over calculation—not just the judgements of judges, but the judgements of all men, even children and tax inspectors.

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Curriculum Studies and Educational Planning
by Denis Lawton

London, Hodder and Stoughton, 1983,
161pp; £3.65 (paperback)

This book offers a clearly set out account of one way of planning curricula. Professor Lawton begins by examining the problems of defining curriculum and of isolating the ideologies brought to bear on this process, and by outlining the eternal difficulties over the term 'objectives'. He next sets out his own view of 'cultural analysis', which is based on a common-sense choice of eight sub-systems. This conceptual tool is then used to map in brief the contemporary English culture. A version of the present academic curriculum, more particularly at the secondary level, is compared with this map to reveal some serious gaps, particularly in political and moral education. In a very practical way Lawton considers how a school by 'matrix planning' and largely using existing staff and resources might replan its curriculum. Issues raised by the present appeals for

accountability are confronted, again practically, and are also related to all levels of educational politics. This essentially humanist account ends by drawing its readers' attention to the enemies of the Open Curriculum, by which he means both a curriculum with 'no final goal, only a series of valuable journeys' and one accessible 'to all who wish to learn' (146).

His aim is to establish a 'common', but not 'uniform' curriculum. He admits some weaknesses existing in his own mode of analysis, but sees it as stronger than several others he mentions, such as those of Hirst and Phenix. He does not, however, mention one possible source of, for me very powerful, tools to tackle the problem of curricular planning under contemporary conditions, namely the writings of Habermas. This is in a way odd, as his cultural analysis reveals, as does that of Habermas, the waning legitimacy, particularly in economic terms, of present English society.

Lawton's whole analysis, despite several disclaimers (e.g. on p71), tends to be somewhat consensually based and the two major criticisms of his position with which he deals are both relevant at this point. The first relates to the problem of what curriculum is most appropriate for the working class. His answer — as mine would be, but for different reasons — is a sympathetically taught version of his common curriculum, but the complexities raised by Bourdieu theoretically and Bissieret (1979) empirically, and covered generally by the concept of 'cultural capital', are not mentioned at all. Secondly, he deals with pluralism based on ethnic minorities in a somewhat similar way; here the difficulties of countries such as Australia are ducked by citing only such extreme, difficult cases as tribal Aborigines and overlooking the less extreme groups, for example, ethnic Lebanese or Turks. Furthermore, all these racial groups are cross-cut by one fundamental social difference that is totally ignored. 'Semiotics' gets one mention in the Index, but 'sexism' none; nor are 'girls' or 'women' to be found. To start from a Habermasian ideal speech situation, though this situation too has its theoretical problems, would force the focus on all disadvantaged groups, while still allowing social sub-systems, probably very similar to those used by Lawton, to emerge as bases for comparative cultural mapping.

Two practical problems emerge from this fundamentally practical book. The first is that most of the

examples and argument concern secondary schools. I am not competent to judge how primary teachers would view this analysis. Second, and of more importance, any curriculum based on Lawton's cultural analysis would inevitably, in his own words, 'get beyond subjects' (p69). This is just the point at which Phenix's pioneering theoretical work (1964) failed and I doubt whether we are yet skilful enough to help teachers adopt and operate a curriculum that sees subjects as 'means not ends in the teaching process' (p69).

All in all, though, Professor Lawton leaves tertiary students and teachers immensely in his debt. He has written a brief, clear text; only rarely has he over-condensed his material (see p36 where the complex and arguable Kluckholm/Strodbeck 'value orientations' are dealt with in half a page). His writing is logical and almost free of jargon (my pet aversion, 'model', however, appears frequently). He does not hide his own assumptions and positions, so that this work is less bland than some of his earlier work could be seen to be. As a text to be read by students on their own this should form a good starting point, particularly as there is an eight-page bibliography to direct the student onwards. But as the basis for a course run by a teacher who knows the whole field this is a really excellent book. I shall use it myself.

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Kingfisher Pocket Atlas

by Jill and David Wright

London, Kingfisher Books, 1983; £3.95

The *Kingfisher Pocket Atlas* is more than just an atlas. It is a complete, concise guide to the world! Written for secondary school students, it has been set out in a simple and straightforward manner.

The atlas has been divided into various sections, each of which has a colour code for easy reference purposes. On the maps of each individual country is a location map, giving the position of the country in relation to the rest of the world. Another advantage of this atlas is its obvious understanding of the needs school students have when using atlases. Immediately following the introduction is a guide to using maps, something many atlases neglect. It also shows the reader how to make maps and, at the back, contains a glossary of all the words students are liable to have difficulty understanding.

An important feature of the *Kingfisher Pocket Atlas* is that it holds more than just geographical information, it also gives a general background to each country's history as well as facts and figures on such articles as currency, politics and religion — to name but a few.

This atlas sinks in further than the Earth's surface, reaching deep into the centre of our planet, explaining as it goes the basic composition of each layer. It then extends to the other extreme and stretches far into the solar system with facts such as the speed earth travels in orbit and the distance it is from the sun—which varies in different months.

The *Kingfisher Pocket Atlas* is a well-made hard-cover book which is lightweight and handy enough to fit easily into any school bag. It was written by a former senior lecturer in geography, Jill Wright, and a lecturer in education at the University of East Anglia, David Wright. It is excellent value at £3.95.

I would highly recommend this atlas to all secondary school students whether or not they are studying geography. This book contains information useful for a wide range of subjects. It is also very interesting to read with no ulterior motives in mind.

LUCY SKILBECK, aged 15, is in Year 11 at Erindale College, Canberra, Australia.

National Assessment in Australia: An Evaluation of the Australian Studies in Student Performance Project by Colin Power et al
ERDC Report No. 35
Canberra, Australian Government Publishing Service, 1982, 151pp

This report joins others with similar terms of reference from the US and England (Greenbaum et al 1977, Gipps and Goldstein 1983) in forming an important series of documents about educational decision-making. The studies they describe are not neutral, for no evaluation can be, but by bringing together the arguments of the proponents and the opponents of national assessment they make it possible for readers to make their own judgement on the issues involved. By their existence these reports influence the very debates that are their subject; their effect is a moderating one, revealing the folly of extreme positions and probably preventing some of the potentially harmful consequences of adopting such positions.

Despite the similar roles of these studies in differ-

ent countries there are important differences both in the way the evaluations have been conducted and in the national assessment programmes themselves. The Australian study is the work of a distinguished and respected group of educators commissioned by the Education Research and Development Committee (since abolished) to seek answers to questions about the reasons for the national assessment programme, the technical competence of its implementation, the impact on schools and the reaction of various interest groups to its findings. In addition the study offers comments on the value of national assessment and on its broader consequences for education and society.

The report comprises a set of chapters addressing different questions and written by various members of the seven-man team. There is consequently some discontinuity between chapters but Colin Power has, as editor, pulled the separate contributions together into a very readable whole. Power also co-ordinated the evaluation and was involved in writing all but two of the eight chapters. The questionnaires used in the postal surveys are included as appendices. Evaluation information was collected from 183 schools spread across all six states involved in the national testing. Thirty-eight of these schools were also visited and additional information gathered by interview from students, teachers, parents and administrators.

Over a quarter of the report is concerned with the events leading up to the decision to carry out, in 1980, a survey of basic numeracy and literacy using light national samples of 10 and 14 year olds. The reasons for the intense and often acrimonious debate which took place between the proposal of a national assessment programme in 1977 and the decision in 1979 to go ahead with a single survey, are not to be found in the nature of the testing programme. Indeed, the study shows that the content of the tests, their conduct and the use of the results produced few ripples on the surface of Australian education. The cause of the conflicts is to be found in events surrounding an earlier survey, carried out in 1975. That survey was undertaken at the request of a Select Committee on Specific Learning Difficulties whose terms of reference required it to inquire into the incidence of specific learning difficulties. The resulting survey of basic skills produced findings that were interpreted as showing that 'a significant number of children were failing to reach

adequate" levels of literacy and numeracy' (p10). This was just the evidence that was needed by those who were leading a reaction against progressive teaching methods and urging the return to emphasis on 'the basics'.

Power presents evidence that the media, in supporting the 'back to basics' campaign, misrepresented the survey findings to an extent that caused heated resentment among teachers and education officials. Claims were made that standards had deteriorated, though a single survey could not even point at any trends in basic skill performance. However, given their bad experience after the 1975 survey, the proposal for a further survey to be undertaken in order to detect any trend was bound to be opposed by teachers and other educators.

Sweeping aside all arguments about the likely effect on the curriculum, the technical difficulties of valid and reliable measurement of change, the arbitrariness of supposed mastery levels of basic skills, etc., the supporters of national assessment reiterated the importance of knowing whether performance was changing. They rejected suggestions for widening the range of skills tested by the argument that basic skills were vital to all other learning. In this persistence in focussing the tests on the border of mastery/non-mastery of basic skills the Australian national surveys differ sharply from the NAEP in the US and the APU in England. It is interesting that in England the APU was launched (in 1974) on a wave of concern for 'under-achievement' but, unlike the Australian project, the focus was soon turned to the whole range of achievement and indeed the problems of defining and measuring under-achievement were shelved.

The chapters describing the early decision-making are the parts of the report from which other educators can learn most. They illustrate how, for example, in an atmosphere of combat, even a balanced account of the pros and cons can be misused. Such an account was attempted by an ERDC Study Group set up 'to consider the need for a national assessment programme'. This pointed out that improvement of standards had to take place in schools and therefore the assessment should be school-based. At the same time the Study Group report acknowledged that, at the level of the state or nation, there was a need for information about basic skill performance. By selection, both those in favour and those against found support for their case in this report. It is also

intriguing to notice what was *not* argued, in particular the nature of any action that might be taken on the basis of the survey results. But the arguments of the opponents did have their effect in shaping the survey that eventually took place. Not least they led to the evaluation study being commissioned.

After Power's account of the background to the survey, some of the following chapters in the evaluation report are less fascinating. There is some inconsistency and sign of prejudice in the chapter on expectations and opinions of the survey. More could have been made of the incompatibility between the opponents' fears that national assessment would have a narrowing effect on the curriculum and their criticism that it would be incapable of leading to effective change in the curriculum. Similarly, not enough was made of the proponents' underlying assumption that to monitor is automatically to provide a basis for improvement despite the decision to assess only the outcomes of schooling. However, this part of the study did reveal that much of the opposition to the national survey was based on ignorance of its extremely limited nature (at least by comparison with the extensive programmes of national testing in other countries).

There is a useful, if unexciting, description of the impact of the testing on schools. It serves as a reminder that what is assumed to be happening from outside a system often bears little relation to what actually happens inside. Most problems caused to schools in administering the tests resulted from flaws in their own internal communication and decision-making processes rather than anything connected with the content of the tests. The account serves to underline the ERDC's earlier recommendation that, national assessment or not, schools are in need of education about assessment procedures in general.

A later chapter reports attempts to find some impact on schools of the results of the national survey. Several reasons are advanced for the finding of hardly any impact whatsoever. So much effort seems to be expended in the attempt to explain this non-event that the reader is left asking 'what kind of effect *could have been expected?*'. Questionnaires and interviews led repeatedly to the conclusion that teachers either ignored, misunderstood or were unable to interpret the results.

The inability of the schools to interpret and make use of very straightforward criterion-referenced test

results finds an interesting parallel in the findings of a research into teachers' and others' interpretations of APU science results (DES 1984). The latter showed that the notion that the readers of reports should be provided only with evidence on which to base their own judgements was quite misguided. Difficulty in interpretation by users could, perhaps, be understood in the APU context where schools were not given any information about their own pupils' performance and expected to find implications for action from the national results only. In the Australian context schools *were* given their own pupils' results but *still* felt unable to use these diagnostically without some guidance as to acceptable levels of performance. It appears that everywhere the difficulty of using test scores has been underestimated. The Australian evaluation

study did not show that this problem had been anticipated as being such a serious one. All the early fears were about how the results might be misused; few appeared to worry about whether they would be used at all.

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Round the World

Unesco's 22nd General Conference

Michael Wright writes:

Further to my article in *The New Era* last summer (Vol. 64 No. 3) on the WEF and Unesco, I attended the last session of the *22nd General Conference of Unesco* in Paris as WEF observer — one of 267 observers sent by the 131 participating NGOs. I heard the concluding addresses of the Director-General and other dignitaries launching the *2nd Medium Term Plan 1984-1989* which has been approved by the Conference. It was generally agreed to be a successful conference, conducted in a more co-operative and realistic manner than some such meetings in the recent past. I spent a few days after the Conference discussing possible future activities for WEF (as one of the nearly 500 NGOs affiliated to Unesco) with Mme Lafitte, the NGO Standing Committee Chairman, and three Unesco officers dealing with NGO matters, publicity and youth. From these discussions I can see an interesting opportunity for WEF to undertake a project within the Medium Term Plan, using *International Youth Year 1985* as the launch for such a project. It could be international in scope through the participation of interested Sections and their National Commissions. I would like to raise this for discussion at the WEF International Conference in Utrecht this summer.

Obituary — Professor Anisuddin Ansari

Muhammad Mirza, on behalf of the WEF (Pakistan) writes:

Professor Anisuddin Ansari, former Professor of Education at the Central Training College, Lahore (now College of Education for Men, Lahore), and Section Secretary and Representative of the World Education Fellowship in Pakistan, died on December 28 1983. We have lost in him an eminent educationist and dearest colleague. We present heart-felt condolence to the bereaved family, to his colleagues in WEF and to his friends and students in Pakistan.

STOP PRESS: Who Needs The Arts?

Preparation for this year's WEF Conference *Who Needs The Arts?* (for details see p49) is well advanced, judging by the latest report to the WEF Guiding Committee by Peter van Staple and Lida Dijkema of the Dutch Section. Presentations already accepted include some 22 papers, 25 workshops, 6 audio-visual presentations, 3 lectures and 10 materials displays. Participants will have an interesting range of parallel activities to choose from.

The topics indicate that a broad range of themes in arts education will be addressed, and from the perspectives of many cultures and nations. The aspiration of a strong experiential component in the conference seems set for realisation.

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Journal of the World Education Fellowship

Editorial

A powerful statement by James Banks on the need for renewed efforts in multicultural education establishes a major theme in this issue. Banks is a leading American authority on policies and programmes for multicultural education. During a recent visit to Britain he was able to compare and contrast not only provision but also policies, attitudes and points of view. The issue he identifies is the tendency of left and right ideologues to deny to multicultural education a role in peaceful and positive social change. Their views, as Banks perceives them, seem to be opposed, but are curiously united in finding fault with approaches that gives specific attention to ways and means of improving education for all students in schools.

It is time, as Banks points out, to ease the multicultural debate away from extremist positions and to put it firmly into the context of a democratic philosophy of fair and equitable access to resources and shared values and experiences.

Several of our reviewers, discussing publications from and about different cultures and societies, remind us that, from a world perspective, we are far from achieving either a basic minimum education for all, or forms of schooling, curriculum and examinations which adequately acknowledge the diverse needs of student populations. The multicultural debate has proved a great source of contention within national spheres. We have scarcely begun to consider its implications internationally.

Alessandra Wilson and Doreen Massey, a London comprehensive school principal and advisory teacher respectively, highlight the continuing need for practitioners to assess the adequacy of schooling in terms of the needs and expectations of all students. Comprehensive secondary education will continue to fall short of its own goals and values as long as substantial numbers of youth are effectively excluded from participation by unsatisfactory curricula, external examinations and discriminatory assumptions and practices by teachers. The direct involvement of the students themselves in all aspects of school decision making is one means at our disposal to address these difficulties.

The American visionary social and cultural critic and reformer, Lewis Mumford, is the subject of a

Profile, one of our occasional series, by David Conrad. Mumford's breadth of interest and readiness to offer comprehensive solutions to critical problems stand in stark contrast to modern forms of academic specialisation, bureaucratic procedures and political decision making. They are a reminder of an earlier time and the roots of his philosophy have much in common with those of the WEF itself. Mumford, however, has never looked backwards, except in order to appraise and draw together ideas for the future. It is appropriate, therefore, that we should publish, next to his profile, Marion Brown's latest report on progress in Costa Rica towards establishing the United Nations University for Peace (see *N.E.* 64.4.1983 p114).

Also in this issue is the latest report by Lida Dijkema and Peter van Staple on what promises to be a rich and stimulating 32nd international conference of the WEF. In our next issue we aim to publish reports from and about the conference.

Finally, Helen Connell provides a summary of a recent seminar on peace education, organised by the Marc Goldstein Memorial Trust. The Trust was established some years ago with the object of establishing a chair of international education at London University. Its Secretary, Dr Rex Andrews, is Chairman of WEF (GB). The first of a series on aspects of education for international understanding, this seminar was designed to bring about a more balanced and searching appraisal of the issues in peace education than is to be found in much of the political and media debate on the subject. We will carry reports of further seminars in the series.

Multicultural Education and Its Critics: Britain and the United States*

James A. Banks

Born in social protest and steeped in the political context, multicultural education has evoked acid debates and controversies in each of the nations in which it has arisen. In this paper, I examine the nature of multicultural education and the arguments and positions of its major critics in two nations that have a rich literature on ethnicity and schooling: the United Kingdom and the United States.

The Ethnic Revival

During the forties and fifties, social scientists predicted that ethnicity would wane in nation-states as they became increasingly modernized. Race relations scholars believed that interest groups would be related primarily to social class and to other voluntary and achieved affiliations in modernized nation-states. When the ethnic protest movements emerged in nations such as the United States, Canada, and the United Kingdom in the sixties and seventies, it was clear that existing theories were unable to explain the complex nature of ethnicity in Western democracies. Ethnicity in most Western nations was far from disappearing when the seventies began. It was experiencing a renaissance.¹ Ethnic discrimination, immigration, and the need for individuals to have cultural group attachments in modernized societies are some of the reasons why ethnicity persists in Western nations.²

The Rise of Multicultural Education

The demand for reform of the national education system has been an integral part of each of the ethnic revival movements that has arisen in the Western nations.³ A major goal of most ethnic

revival movements is to attain equality for the excluded ethnic group. The school is usually viewed by the victimized ethnic group not only as an important vehicle that can help it to attain equality, but also as an institution that contributes to the group's exclusion because it reinforces the dominant anti-equalitarian ideologies and values of the nation-state. Since the school is viewed by ethnic reformers as an important institution in their oppression, they attempt to reform it because they believe that it can be a pivotal vehicle in their liberation.

The reforms that schools have implemented in various nations to respond to the ethnic revival movements are known by a variety of names, including multiethnic education, multiracial education, and multicultural education.⁴ The varied names used to describe the reform movements reflect the myriad goals and strategies that have been used to respond to the ethnic movements both within and across different nations. While multicultural education within the various Western nations shares some important characteristics, in each nation there are significant differences in the histories and nature of the groups that have led the ethnic movements, in the kind of responses that have been given by national leaders, in the entitlements articulated by ethnic groups, and in the political contexts from which the ethnic revival movements emerged. It is important to keep these important differences between nations in mind when multicultural education is studied cross-nationally.

The Nature of Multicultural Education

Multicultural education is an inclusive concept used to describe a wide variety of school practices, programs, and materials designed to help children from diverse groups to experience educational equality. It is therefore not unlike many educational innovations when they first emerge. When a new educational reform movement arises and is in search of its *raison d'être*, disparate programs and practices emerge and claim the new label. This happened when reforms such as progressive education, career

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education, inquiry teaching, and education for the gifted first arose in the United States.

During its formative stages, when it is defining its boundaries and formulating its basic principles, an educational reform movement is highly vulnerable and susceptible to criticism. Moreover, during this period many concepts which its leaders are formulating are strongly violated by practitioners who become involved in the reform movement but who are neither adequately informed about its basic philosophy and aims, nor skilled in implementing its major components.

A reform movement such as multicultural education, which deals with highly controversial and politicized problems and issues such as racism and inequality, is especially likely to be harshly criticized during its formative stages because it deals with problems in society, and appears to many individuals and groups to challenge established institutions, norms, and values. It is also likely to evoke strong emotions, feelings, and highly polarized opinions.

Scholars from both the right and the left criticize multicultural education. However, the radical left critique is primarily British rather than American. The American critics of multicultural education are primarily conservative and neoconservative. Some of the most acid and perceptive critics of multicultural education in Britain are radical scholars. Radical American scholars such as Apple, Katz, and Bowles and Gintis, have not focused their analyses and criticisms on multicultural education but on the general nature of schooling.⁵

It is difficult to explain why multicultural education has been a target of radical critics in Britain but not in the United States. This may be due to the unique nature of multicultural education in the two nations and to the different histories of race relations in the United States and Britain. Kirp points out that America has historically had more explicit race relations policies than Britain.⁶ Multicultural education in the United States may have, in its early stages, dealt more explicitly with institutional racism and inequality than multiracial education in Britain. The American multicultural education movement may therefore be viewed more harshly by radical critics than its British equivalent.

The radicals criticize multicultural education because they believe that it fails to promote structural reform of societal institutions. The conserva-

tives criticize it because they perceive it as a threat to the status quo, are afraid that it will reinterpret the national experience, create Balkanization, help to splinter the nation, and prevent minority youths from developing the skills needed to participate in the national civic culture. The radical scholars criticize multicultural education for not doing what the conservatives are afraid it will achieve: significant reform of the social structure.

The Radical Critique of Multicultural Education

The radical left critic argues that multicultural education is a palliative to keep excluded and oppressed groups such as blacks from rebelling against a system that promotes structural inequality and institutionalized racism.⁷ Many of the radical scholars believe that capitalism is a basic cause of inequality in Western nations.⁸ By focusing on cultural differences and human relations in the classroom, multicultural education, they claim, promotes the myth that all cultures are equally valid. This fiction is designed to make oppressed groups content with the status quo and with the system that oppresses them.

Multicultural education, argue the radical critics, does not deal with the real reasons that ethnic and racial groups are oppressed and victimized. It does not promote an analysis of the institutionalized structures that keep ethnic groups powerless and victimized. It avoids any serious analysis of class, institutionalized racism, power, capitalism, and the other systems used to keep excluded groups powerless. Multicultural education, they further argue, diverts attention from the real problems and issues. Instead, it focuses on the victims as the problem. It describes the characteristics of powerless groups that supposedly cause their problems, such as their low self-concepts, confused identities, and linguistic deficiencies.

Rather than multicultural education, the argument continues, we need serious analyses of the institutionalized racist and class systems that keep ethnic groups powerless and victimized. We need to focus on the institutions and structures of society rather than on the characteristics of minority students. Some of the radical critics of multicultural education in Britain tend to emphasize anti-racism as the major strategy needed to deal with the problems caused by the structural exclusion of ethnic groups.⁹ An important group of the radical critics argues that

the school is one of the social institutions that both reflect and perpetuate social class, ethnic, and racial stratification. Consequently, because it is a part of the problem, it is impossible for it to promote anti-racism and social equality.

The radical critics of multicultural education tend to be cogent and explicit when they criticize the school but vague and ambiguous when they propose strategies for school reform. Bowles and Gintis, whose arguments are frequently used by the critics of multicultural education to support their positions, are perceptively critical of the school but are vague when they describe school reform strategies. In their chapter on 'Strategies for Change', they write: 'How do we get there? ... Indeed, we have no firm, strongly held, overall, and intellectually coherent answer to the central issue. ... The overriding strategic goal of a socialist movement is the creation of working-class consciousness.'¹⁰ Neither in these statements nor in the other parts of their chapter on change strategies do Bowles and Gintis delineate specific reform strategies. Their discussion of change strategies typifies the radical critics of multicultural education.

If you follow the radical critique to its ultimate conclusion, you must abandon the school as a vehicle to help bring about equality. If the school merely reflects the social structure (which the critics claim is both racist and class stratified), then it is futile to try to promote change within it. This leads reformers to abandon the school and to try to implement a structural revolution outside of it. In this role, educators have forsaken their function. The radical critique, if logically pursued, can become an alibi for the educational neglect of ethnic issues. Multicultural education alone cannot make structural changes within society. It can, however, facilitate and reinforce reform movements that can take place outside of schools. The schools can promote social criticism and help students to develop a commitment to humane social change.

The Conservative Critique of Multicultural Education

In both the United States and the United Kingdom, there is concern about the eroding quality of the common schools. This concern is especially acute in the United States. A rash of reports calls for increased emphasis on teaching basic skills and emphasize the deteriorating quality of American

schools.¹¹ As concern for teaching the basic skills increases, the commitment to multicultural education wanes because most back-to-basics advocates see it as a frill that diverts attention from the main goal of the school — the teaching of basic skills. This trend is evident in the Twentieth Century Fund Report which emphasizes the primacy of teaching English and recommends that the federal funds now allocated for bilingual education "be used to teach non-English-speaking children how to speak, read, and write English".¹²

The back-to-basics critics of multicultural education often perceive it as a mushy movement which is more concerned about raising children's self-concepts and making their racial attitudes more positive than it is about helping students to master basic skills. Maureen Stone is one of the most erudite back-to-basics critics of multicultural education in Britain.¹³ She argues that in their eagerness to raise the self-concepts of black children and to teach them black history and culture, teachers in Britain often act like counselors rather than teachers, and have consequently largely failed to teach black students the basic skills.

Conservative critics of multicultural education believe that the school should help all students to develop the attitudes, skills, and knowledge needed to participate in the shared national culture. The school, they argue, should promote allegiance to the overarching idealized values of the nation-state and competency in the national language and culture.¹⁴ If ethnic groups want their children to learn ethnic cultures and languages, these should be taught by the groups themselves and not by public institutions such as schools. We should, the conservatives argue, make an important distinction between the function of public institutions such as schools and the role of private agencies such as ethnic institutions.

The Tactics of the Critics

The critics to the right and left use a similar and effective method to criticize the multicultural education movement. Rather than analyzing the goals of the movement as stated by its theorists or describing the best school practices that exemplify these goals, the critics have chosen some of the worse practices that are masquerading as multicultural education and defined these practices as multicultural education. They have then proceeded to criticize multicultural education as they have

conceptualized and defined it. The critics create straw men whom they then destroy.

The radical critics of multicultural education in Britain, for example, have not carefully studied the works of American multicultural education theorists such as Mildred Dickeman, Geneva Gay, and Barbara A. Sizemore. As early as 1973, these scholars delineated goals of multicultural education related to the analysis and reform of the major social, economic, and political institutions of society.¹⁵ Writing in what became a highly influential book published by the National Council for the Social Studies, Dickeman, Gay, and Sizemore provided analyses of the schools and society that helped teachers to better understand institutionalized racism and structural inequality.¹⁶ These authors also suggested ways that teachers could help raise students' consciousness of these concepts and problems—a goal consistent with the reform strategy proposed by Bowles and Gintis.

In criticizing multicultural education, the critics have focused on some of the most questionable practices and dubious assumptions that have become associated with it. Ethnic holiday celebrations, the making of multiethnic calendars, and other kinds of superficial practices are often assumed by the critics to constitute the essence of multicultural education. The fact that many teachers also have this conception of multicultural education merely confounds the problems of this nascent reform movement. One argues that the major goal of multicultural education in Britain is to increase the self-concept of black students, which she views as inappropriate and harmful to their education.¹⁷ Yet, theorists of multicultural education in Britain, such as Craft, Ashley, and Lynch, conceptualize goals for multicultural education that are more theoretically and empirically sound.¹⁸

There is a wide gap between theory and practice in multicultural education in both Britain and the United States. Critics of multicultural education such as Stone frequently derive their conceptions of multicultural education from misguided school practices rather than from the theoretical and empirical work of multicultural education scholars. A top priority for multicultural education in the coming years is to close the wide gap between theory, research, and practice.

The problems of multicultural education have also been confounded by the fact that its theorists are

still in the process of reaching consensus on goals. However, consensus on goals is developing at an impressive pace. Some important disagreements among the theorists in the field still exist (such as which specific ethnic, racial, social class, and cultural groups should be included in multicultural education). However, there is a marked degree of consensus among them about the field's major goals and boundaries.¹⁹ Most theorists and researchers in multicultural education, for example, agree that *total* school reform is needed to create a school environment that promotes educational equality for minority youths. They also agree that among the important variables in the school environment that influence the academic achievement and emotional development of minority youths are the learning styles favored by the school, the languages and dialects that are sanctioned, the teaching materials, and the norms toward ethnic diversity that permeate the school environment.

Responding to the Radical Critics

Multicultural theorists need to study seriously the critics of the field, evaluate their arguments for soundness and validity, and incorporate the ideas of the critics which will contribute to the main goals of multicultural education. These goals include reforming the total school environment so that students from diverse racial, ethnic, and cultural groups will experience educational equality. Realistically, goals for multicultural education must be limited. Educators have little control over the wider society or over students when they leave the classroom. Educators can teach students the basic skills and help them to develop more democratic attitudes by creating school and classroom environments that promote cultural democracy. However, schools alone cannot eliminate racism and inequality in the wider society. They can reinforce democratic social and political movements beyond the school walls and thus contribute in important ways to the elimination of institutional racism and structural inequality. The multicultural curriculum can give students keen insights into racism and inequality within their societies and help them to develop a commitment to social change.²⁰

Multicultural theorists need to think seriously about the radical argument, that multicultural education is a palliative to contain ethnic rage and that it does not deal seriously with the structural in-

equalities in society or important concepts such as racism, class, structural inequality, and capitalism. During the early stages of multicultural education in the United States, when it focused primarily on teaching the cultures and histories of non-white ethnic groups, the attention devoted to concepts such as racism and structural inequality was salient. Yet, as the ethnic studies movement expanded to include more and more ethnic groups, and eventually to include feminist issues and other cultural groups, increasingly less attention was devoted to racism and to the analysis of power relationships. Gay has expressed concern about the wide boundaries of the field:

"Another potential threat to multiethnic education comes from within. Although any educational idea must grow and change if it is to stand the test of time, such growth must remain within reasonable boundaries and retain a certain degree of continuity. If many new dimensions are added to an idea too rapidly, the original idea may be distorted beyond recognition. This may be beginning to happen to multiethnic education."²¹

The radical critique of multicultural education should stimulate multicultural educators to devote more attention to issues such as racism, power relationships, and structural inequality. The radical writers are right to argue that racism and structural inequality are the root cause of many of the problems faced by ethnic groups in modernized western nations such as the United States and the United Kingdom. However, as Green has pointed out, multicultural educators must live with the contradiction that they are trying to promote democratic and humane reforms within schools that often reflect and perpetuate anti-democratic values within the wider society. Green writes: "Contradiction is the essence of social change."²²

The school itself is contradictory, since it often expounds democratic values while at the same time contradicting them. Thus the radical scholars overstate their case when they argue that the schools merely perpetuate and reproduce the inequalities in society. The influence of the schools on individuals is neither as unidimensional nor as cogent as the radical critics claim. The school, both explicitly and implicitly, teaches both democratic and anti-egalitarian values, just as the wider society does. Thus the schools, like the society of which they are

a part, create the kind of moral dilemma for people that Gunnar Myrdal described when he studied American race relations in the forties.²³ Myrdal believed that this moral dilemma made social change possible because most Americans felt a need to make the democratic ideals they inculcated and societal practices more consistent.

Multicultural education can help students to become more aware of the inconsistencies between the democratic ideals and societal practices in western societies, develop a commitment to reflective and humane social change, and teach the skills needed to become efficacious in promoting social reform. Some creative work has been done by scholars in the United States such as Fred Newmann and Harold Berlak on social action projects designed to help students to develop political efficacy and civic action skills.²⁴ The major goal of ethnic studies teaching, as conceptualized in my previous works, is to help students develop a sense of political efficacy and the knowledge and skills needed to influence public policy in order to increase equity within their societies.²⁵ Craft, a British multicultural education theorist, believes that the school can contribute to the reformation of society. He writes:

"While schools quite clearly devote much of their efforts to social, economic and political continuity, they also contribute to social change. They generate an output of social criticism in each generation, and an element of original thinking across a broad spectrum. It is perhaps too simple an analysis of the social process to argue that education has only a conservative function."²⁶

Responding to Conservative Critics

A main assumption of the conservative critics of multicultural education is that there is an inherent contradiction between responding to the cultural characteristics of students, teaching ethnic content, and teaching basic skills. Multicultural educators need to demonstrate the fallacy of this assumption and reveal how multicultural education is designed to help minority students to achieve better, and not less well, in school. A major assumption of multicultural education is that a curriculum that is consistent with the learning and motivational styles of ethnic youths, and that validates their cultures, identity, and worth will enhance their ability to

master the basic skills. More conceptual and empirical work is needed to test the validity of this assumption. Teaching minority youths the basic skills is one of the most important goals of multicultural education.

Many conservative critics believe that the goals of multicultural education are un-American and that lessons taught in the multicultural curriculum undercut patriotism. This is a serious misconception. Multicultural education promotes goals that are highly consistent with American democratic ideals. A key goal of multicultural education is to help all students, including majority group students, to develop more democratic attitudes, values, and behaviors. This should be an important goal of citizenship education since a major aim of schooling in a democracy is to help students to develop the attitudes and values needed to be successful citizens in the national civic culture. Much evidence indicates that most students, from an early age when they first come to school, have anti-democratic racial attitudes.²⁷ Their attitudes tend to harden if steps are not taken to make them more democratic.²⁸ Helping students to develop more democratic values and attitudes is highly consistent with the goals of citizenship education in democratic nation-states. Educational practitioners as well as the lay public need to become more aware of the ways in which multicultural education tries to create a better education for all students.

Multicultural Education and the American Democratic Tradition

Multicultural education in the United States emerged out of the conflicts and struggles of the sixties and seventies. Thus it is a legitimate child of American participatory democracy. It is consistent with the American democratic tradition that views the school as an important socializing institution that helps the nation's youth acquire the democratic values, knowledge, and skills essential for the survival of participatory democracy. Because multicultural education has aims that are highly consistent with United States idealized values and goals, it has a much greater possibility for becoming institutionalized within American schools than more radical conceptions of school reform, such as those envisioned by the radical critics. Radical reform movements have rarely succeeded in American educational history, in large part because educators are

mainstream Americans who perceive themselves as gatekeepers of the nation's sacred democratic traditions, symbols, heroes, myths, and institutions. Movements that appear to threaten the nation's democratic ideals, such as neo-marxist notions of school reform, are likely to be summarily rejected by most American educators without serious analysis or consideration.

The rich potential of multicultural education, despite its problems and brief, troubled history, is that it promises to reform the school within the context of the basic assumptions about schooling that are held by most teachers and help schools to better realize American democratic values. Thus multicultural education does not envision new goals for schools, but rather asks schools to expand their concepts of political and cultural democracy to include large groups of students who have been historically denied opportunities to fully realize American democratic values and ideals. It is for these reasons that I believe that educators who wish to change the schools so that they will better promote educational equality should opt for reformist approaches, such as those known as multicultural education, and reject radical proposals for the reconstruction of American society and schools. I suspect that reformist rather than radical approaches will also be more successful in reforming British schools. However, my colleagues across the Atlantic, rather than I, are in a position to argue the case for the reform of British schools. While radical scholarship has a richer tradition in Britain than in the United States,²⁹ the British schools that I have observed are just as conservative, if not more so, as those in America.

Multicultural Education: A Troubled Future

Multicultural education has a rough road ahead in both Britain and the United States. While it is being harshly criticized by both the left and the right, it is searching for its soul and *raison d'être*. Multicultural education is plagued by internal problems that must be quickly solved before it is dismissed by many educators as just another promising fad that failed. The conservatives damn multicultural education because they fear that it will revolutionize society. The radicals dismiss it as useless and harmful because they view it as simply another tool of the ruling elite to contain ethnic rage. Yet, as the debate escalates, the problems of

minority groups in the schools and society deepen. The new advocates of excellence in American schools are largely silent about equality. A quest for excellence without equality will increase the problems of minority students. New immigrants continue to flock to America to fulfil their dreams at a time when the dreams of many Americans are shattered. Ethnic tension in Britain has been exacerbated by a new wave of conservatism and the rigid social class structure that grips that nation. Despite its problems, multicultural education provides sensible and concrete guidelines for action, within the existing context of schools and society, that can lead to increased equity for all students. Its biggest problem is that we have not had the will and vision to give it a chance to succeed.

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Round the World

Peace Education a Threat?

In recent years, peace education has become — surprisingly? — a highly controversial activity in schools. At a recent seminar hosted in London by the Marc Goldstein Memorial Trust, discussion brought out three ways in which peace education seems to be seen as a threat.

1. Peace education can be seen as a threat to the political policies some governments may wish to follow, if they feel peace education may undermine or challenge what they propose. This was seen to be the case in UK at present where peace education has come to have a left wing connotation, and some conservative politicians appear to see it as a Trojan horse which will succeed in bringing unilateralist CND (Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament) supporters in safe disguise into the protected confines of the schools. This is the fear of controversial issues in schools — that the mere encounter with a variety of beliefs on social controversies in a respectable educative environment will subvert the new generation in the view of the government of the day.

2. Within schools, peace education can be seen as a threat to already crowded school timetables — how can it fit yet more in. Here peace education finds common ground with other non-traditional concerns taking school space — such as development, environment, computers. Familiar arguments are raised about whether it is best to: a) seek a new subject with timetable space, and possibly eventual formal

recognition with an external exam paper); b) colonise existing areas of school curricula, such as history, economics; or c) join forces with other new concerns where there are substantial areas of common interest, in pursuing both a) and b). Over the last two years it appears this last has been happening to a marked extent in UK schools.

3. Peace education also offers a fundamental challenge to the structure of the school as we commonly know it, through its concern with the establishment of peaceful relationships. Thus as teachers become reflective about the substance of peace education, and try to put into practice what peace education teaches, it becomes an uncomfortable (and non-deferential) experience. This is hard enough for those who are themselves trying to work the ideas out in practice, but even harder for their less concerned colleagues who necessarily become challenged by the ideas, if only through changed student experience and expectation. The shift toward a more co-operative, less authoritarian relationship between teacher and class is by no means unique to peace education, and has been a tenet of progressive pedagogy since early this century — as has the challenge to the structure and organisation of the school. But the extent to which these changes are still perceived as a threat is perhaps a measure of the ground progressive education still has to cover. Discussion was opened by Michael McCrum and Frank Barnaby. Tessa Blackstone chaired.

Achievement in Schools

by Alessandra Wilson and Doreen Massey

In this article, we shall be exploring some of the possible reasons why some students in secondary schools become alienated from the school system and why they might under-achieve and behave badly in the eyes of their teachers, parents and society. We shall suggest possible strategies for improving the motivation of students. Rutter's work in inner London suggests that schools can have a positive effect on the development of pupils in terms of behaviour, attendance and academic achievement.¹ We maintain that the disaffected should not be considered as an isolated challenge and that factors influencing the motivation and attitude to learning of all students should be investigated.

Concern about underachievement in comprehensive schools seems to be focussed in specific groups of children: those from ethnic minority backgrounds, especially Afro-Caribbean, girls and working-class pupils. The under-achievement may be expressed in terms of subject uptake, examination results, truancy, and disruption, all of which may affect ultimate lifestyle. Pupils from working-class backgrounds, certainly, appear to have limited options after passing through the school system, despite changes in school organisation and curriculum.²

Parents want the best out of the school system for their children, and children want the best for themselves. Confusion about what 'best' is feasible is one source of conflict between the consumers (parents and children) and the providers (the education service). British society defines 'best' as formal examination qualification at GCE Ordinary Level at least. Anything else is 'less good', less valuable and thus comparative failure. Theoretically, comprehensive schools offer the attractive possibility of academic success for all their entrants. However, since the GCE 'O' Level examination was, and is, designed to test the performance of that 25% of the population with specific cognitive intellectual abilities, it is an examination in which 75% of the population will fail, at least partially. As comprehensive schools gradually identify those students likely to manage 'O' Level courses and those suited to other

courses and examinations, they are inevitably identifying failure in the view of students, parents, employers and the community at large. Educationalists may rehearse the values of the Certificate of Secondary Education and other examining systems, but the argument is empty. The users of the schools remain unconvinced of the value of non-GCE courses and certification. The idea that grammar schools served clever working-class children best has not evaporated, and when the reputations of schools currently viewed as 'good' or 'bad' are examined, links with public examination success at 16+ are nearly always paramount.

Historical Factors

Access to the opportunities supposedly offered by education should have increased steadily since the 1944 Education Act. Yet although school careers have lengthened, opportunity does not appear to have improved dramatically. Denis Lawton's reflections³ on 'fairer selection rather than equality' and 'better opportunities to become unequal' still appear relevant. Implicit in the 1944 Act were recognition and definition of educational criteria in accordance with a pupil selection procedure at 11+. Grammar schools were to provide academic opportunities leading to higher education and the professions. Technical schools opened doors to apprenticeships and skilled jobs, whilst non-selective schools provided a basic education for future unskilled workers. Undoubtedly there was some blurring of these stereotypes, but once the pressures, heartaches, disappointments and limitations of selection at 11+ had been lived through, the aims of the secondary schools and the teachers and pupils in them were quite clear. Parents, employers and members of the schools' local communities also understood the nature of the schools. There is currently a similar style of acceptance of, and agreement about, purpose between the users of the schools and the schools themselves in the private sector. The development and introduction of comprehensive education was accompanied by political and ideological antagonism, together with confusion

about the aims and tasks of comprehensive schools.

So, some schools are seen to be failing the children they teach and it is not surprising that they and their works are rejected by students, parents, employers and the community. An educational credibility gap is created by the mismatch between parents' and students' expectations and the experiences and achievements of the students in school.

The good feelings associated with success become less accessible to students in schools where recognition comes only with success in public examinations. When a sense of failure is daily reinforced, students may choose to withdraw from the unpleasant and demeaning experiences involved by arriving late, skipping lessons or truanting; some may distance themselves from the work of the school by establishing an alternative, anti-school culture.⁴ Disruptive, hostile, challenging behaviour offers a particular form of success and such a development in a school is difficult to cope with. We need to rethink and publicly define what we mean by success in school and set up systems to support and extend the possibilities for all students to achieve some guarantee of success during their school career.

The nature of success and achievement is subtle and as much associated with personal feelings as with formally recognised qualifications. The maintenance of motivation and commitment to any work needs underpinning by the positive reinforcement and pleasure during the task. Without them, indifference develops, followed by unpleasant sensations of failure leading to a rejection of the work itself, the people responsible for imposing it and the institution where the work is undertaken. Feelings of success and achievement spring from impressing oneself or impressing others or from interactions between the two. Such experiences may include helping students to acquire the ability to do something new, or to think in a way which could not be managed before. Feelings of success may come from having control over one's environment and being significant within it, being active with others in thinking or doing and in being appreciated for one's contributions. These enhance feelings of success and achievement. Yet how often are school systems based on the exercise of punishment rather than reward? and how often are those students who receive most punishment those most in need of reward?

It has been argued that radical reform is necessary; that children are failing from an early age

because of mismatches between home background and traditional school expectation and that schools need to adapt or be replaced by a different system of education.⁵ These are important and powerful arguments. However, tradition dictates and conservatism indicates that schools are not geared to 'deschool'. Most parents, we suspect, would be unconvinced even if they were drawn into a democratic decision-making process about the nature of radical restructuring. And if parents lose confidence in the schooling received by their children, then a negative spiral may consume not just children, but ultimately parts of a system.

Action is obviously needed, however, if students are to be enabled to respond to the offerings in secondary schools. This means changing some of the offering, some of the ways in which the offering is made and how students are helped to be positive partners in the schooling process. This is discussed below.

The difficulties facing the teaching profession also need to be appreciated. Problems of apathy, weak colleagues, overwork, amalgamations of schools, falling rolls, etc., will induce stress and deter change. Yet change, in spite of the hard work and trauma resulting from it, may ultimately help students to achieve and reduce teacher stress. A fundamental problem is that some schools are comprehensive in name only. During the stresses of school amalgamations and closures of the 1970s, reassessment of school structures and curricula may have been neglected. Some teachers were appointed to posts which they found difficult to fulfil adequately in the context of a new and more diverse school population. The pressing issues cannot, however, be escaped and staff in schools need to analyse their principles, aims and objectives as individuals, members of a department or year and as a whole staff. This may be difficult and painful and differences of opinion may remain, but clarification will have been instigated. Areas for examination will include: the curriculum (content and teaching methods), pastoral care, the hidden curriculum and the best possible organisation in which these can function.

The Curriculum

Possible 'areas of experience' in the curriculum have been, and still are, under discussion and debate. The pluralistic nature of our society and the increasing amount that could be learned in school seem to

us to argue for a 'core' curriculum embracing academic, practical and personal and social skills. The 'what' of the curriculum is obviously important, but mismatches with the lives of students seem inevitable. Changes in the school curriculum have consistently lagged behind changes in the culture of a society.⁶ This mismatch may be intensifying in the 1980s. Technological advances and sophisticated and attractive media presentations can make schools and their approaches to teaching and learning seem redundant, particularly with the prospect of unemployment looming after school. We see little contradiction in the concept of a core curriculum, including and transmitting knowledge and values which are not immediately relevant to the lives of students. We would strongly maintain, however, that the methods used in transmission are of utmost importance. Any core curriculum needs to have as part of its function the remedying of distortions and omissions in term of race, class and gender. People whose existence is denied or who are viewed negatively are not likely to relate well to a system which, overtly or covertly, sustains such a standpoint.

There is continuing inequality of opportunity for working-class children, for girls and for black children. Some of these children, however, do perform well in school, despite a curriculum which may be quite alien to their family life-style and culture. These 'successful' students may well have learned to carry ambiguity. Cultures need not necessarily be mutually exclusive or excluding. But adolescents may need considerable help in coping not only with the 'who am I?' but with 'How do I cope with conflicts?'. Many strategies, therefore, need to be considered with a view to making the knowledge and culture of a more enlightened curriculum available to students. We need to investigate ways of making guidance and assessment operate as a positive force. Our present system of external examinations may be exercising a stranglehold on all these issues.⁷

Whatever the shape and subject content of the curriculum in secondary schools, students need to be aware of the structure and content of courses and of the skills and attitudes sought within these courses. Criterion-based, continuous assessments involving teachers, students and parents must be developed to replace our current external examination system at 16+. For comprehensive schools to have credibility, parents, employers and the community need to be aware that the schools recognise and value

success of many kinds. Practical ways of involving parents in the education of their children need to be accepted as a necessary part of the work of schools. If the criteria for success in school are broad, and if they are monitored regularly, then students and their parents may find the school programme more accessible. By building a record of students' achievements to include social skills and attitudes as well as practical skills and acquiring abstract concepts, schools will be defining success, not failure.

Teaching Methods

We are clearly not motivating some secondary school pupils to either learning tasks or to personal competencies of other kinds. Denis Lawton states:

'What has to be argued out is what kind of knowledge, values and experiences are worthwhile for all pupils, and then how can schools transmit this selection from the culture to all pupils in a way which is not insulting or rejecting'.⁸

Method may be crucial. Transfer from primary to secondary school often means that teaching methods, relationships with teachers, and the environment change. The child has to cope with a much more complex system, and this can present difficulties unless foreseen and catered for. The structure of the secondary school day and unfamiliar teaching methods may be sources of confusion and alienation for some children. Methods of teaching will include teacher 'style', the structure of a course, use of resources, organisation of a classroom. And these may vary from lesson to lesson, as may teacher expectations about work, behaviour, homework, etc. Little wonder that there is confusion! The situation reinforces the need for defining school aims and objectives and for a consistent method of monitoring, assessing and recording student progress. Different groups of students and different teachers will interact in a number of ways and teaching methods be designed to meet the composition and aptitudes of the group. If they are not so designed, then we must expect trouble, analyse the situation and make changes. If the design fits, then the make-up of the group (streamed, unstreamed, etc.) is immaterial. It is the interaction which is important and the organisation behind that interaction.

The 'Hidden Curriculum'

As well as making learning itself more accessible,

schools should be attractive and accessible as institutions. This means a systematic, formal attempt to improve what is often called the 'hidden curriculum'. This is an elusive term but may be roughly defined as the interactions between the people working in the school and between the people and the school environment. Whilst one cannot legislate for good relationships, one can at least set up systems which might encourage such relationships!

A positive 'hidden curriculum' may be developed through structured reward and support systems for both students and staff, through school functions, journeys, visits, stimulating assemblies, constructive tutor time, sporting activities, concerts, drama productions and so on. Genuine staff consultation and promoted interaction are likely to make staff feel involved and cared for and this will mirror down to students. The sympathy, enterprise, leadership and overall quality of senior staff are vitally important. The school environment itself — buildings, furniture, displays, resources, etc. — may also affect students' responses. Negative stereotyping in respect of class, race or sex needs to be counteracted. The work and activities of students of all abilities, talents and interests need to be visible and stimulating for school members and visitors alike.

Pastoral Systems

Dialogue about the progress of an individual student is the concern of both the subject teacher and the pastoral tutor or pastoral head. Pastoral care in schools has often been seen as the discipline system in its negative form. It has been expected to deal with problems rather than help to create an atmosphere where problems are minimised. We see a good pastoral system as being a dynamic force concerned with guidance for groups and individuals. This might be demonstrated, not only in the monitoring of progress, but in helping that progress to take place.

Structured tutorial work, such as that discussed by Leslie Button, Douglas Hamblin, Keith Blackburn, in the Active Tutorial Project in Lancashire, and in Hopson and Scally's *Lifeskill Teaching*⁹ explores issues of relationships, self-knowledge and self-empowerment. Hopson and Scally quote research which suggests that such work with pupils has a powerful impact.

The Coleman report into educational equality added urgency to the research with its finding that

student achievement was more deeply affected by the students' sense of powerlessness (Coleman called it 'fate control') than by any objective advantages like teacher qualifications, parental income, geographical location of school, access to counselling, character of the library, etc. In other words, students who were able to say 'I am in charge of my life. I can make choices and decisions to get what I want. I feel good about myself.' are more likely to achieve academic success than students who say 'It doesn't make any difference what I do. There's no point in trying because you won't get anywhere unless you're very lucky. Anyway, I'm not very good at anything.'¹⁰

This is not to say that programmes of pastoral work can substitute or recompense for bad teaching, or that 'empowerment' only happens in such situations. Nor are we suggesting that pastoral and academic systems should be rigidly divided, with specific perceptions. What we are suggesting is that an interlocking of the two, sustained by flexibility of approach, and by teachers who see academic and pastoral welfare as a necessary fusion is essential for successful schooling.

Pastoral care might also include a programme of Health Education which sets out to enable students to become aware of the implications of their own actions. By increasing students' self-awareness of the choices they make in their personal and social behaviour, we can also give them access to choices about their physical and emotional health. The Black Report of 1981¹¹ highlights the inequalities, in social class terms, not only of health provision, but of the uptake of that provision, and the influence of lifestyle. The ability to learn, motivation towards work and self-confidence may all be sapped by poor health of one kind or another. By fostering an understanding of good health as something more than an absence of disease, as a desirable state which can be achieved through choices, schools can make a difference to this particular class-based cycle of deprivation.

The principle of offering students opportunities to understand their decision-making and the processes involved, have implications for the formal assessment and monitoring of their achievements as well as for the curriculum, be it pastoral or academic. To be effective, teacher assessment needs to be enhanced by student self-assessment. To give students structured and developmental systems of

monitoring themselves in tandem with the monitoring of their teachers must enhance their self-esteem and their ability to develop self-control. There is thus no contradiction between the careful monitoring we emphasise and self-discipline. The essential factor is student participation.

The maintained school system receives little public congratulation for its excellencies — and there are many of them. Equally, the maintained sector carefully disguises and denies some of its inadequacies. Staff of high quality at all levels are essential if a school is to function well and produce confident and successful young people. We have spoken about the monitoring of student progress; the professional performance and development of teachers is important, too. Staff appraisal/self-appraisal programmes can help teachers to assess their strengths and weaknesses. Strengths can be developed and weaknesses helped by colleagues inside and outside the school. Pastoral care and guidance are as necessary for staff as they are for students and we have to recognise that there are members of the teaching profession who are failing as teachers or managers, and who thus cannot contribute to the success of students and other colleagues. In fact they drain the system of its strengths. Such failure needs formal monitoring, advice and support and, if these are ineffective, the teachers concerned need to be provided with the counselling and financial means to leave the profession. This is a considerable problem for LEAs and unions, but unless it is tackled student achievement in all spheres will be affected and parents will lose faith in the educational system. Middle-class parents, who can afford it, may opt out of state schooling. The working class have fewer options: they are at the mercy of state provision.

What we need in schools now is an honest partnership in learning where parents, students and teachers have a clearly valued role and contribution, and where skills and abilities other than those of a cognitive, intellectual nature are also considered important. 'Success' has to seem possible and achievement has to be reinforced in all areas of school life. Teachers in schools need to work together to ask the critical questions and look for possible answers. Some of these questions have been around for a long time: What are our aims for the students and staff in this school in this community? What intentions can we direct towards those aims and what systems can we devise to sup-

port our aims and intentions?

The questions may always be with us, but the answers will change, sometimes rapidly, as the culture of our society evolves. As teachers we have to re-examine our priorities now, and on a regular basis, in order to do justice to the potential of all our students.

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Profile: Lewis Mumford

David R. Conrad

Eighty-nine years old in October 1984, Lewis Mumford is a great humanist and scholar whose ideas never age. Literary critic Van Wyck Brooks accurately calls Mumford an American prophet and links him to the humanistic tradition of Jefferson, Emerson, Thoreau and Whitman.

Mumford is indeed a visionary thinker. Since 1919, he has authored almost 30 books and hundreds of articles developing his philosophy of wholeness and human transformation. For Mumford, individuals and society must be transformed from greed, prejudice and isolation to co-operation, social justice and love of all humanity. Mumford's organic philosophy celebrates the unbounded creativity of individual men and women and the rich cultures of humankind.

Though his roots are in his native American soil, Mumford explains in his autobiography, *Sketches from Life*, that he 'drew spiritual nourishment from remote cultures and lands' like China and pre-Platonic Greece.¹ He has always been a world traveller, visiting Britain in his mid twenties when sociologist Victor Branford invited him to serve as acting editor of the *Sociological Review* and making many trips to Europe over the years. Mumford was profoundly influenced by the Scottish biologist-sociologist Patrick Geddes, whose *Cities in Evolution* interested the younger scholar in the idea of regional survey as the basis of a radically different educational approach. With regional survey, knowledge comes directly from student observation of and participation in the life of the region. Students evaluate social, physical and natural environments and are encouraged to develop policies, plans and projects to change the existing order.²

Though Mumford has been deeply concerned about education all his life — teaching at a progressive school in New York City for a short time and serving as visiting professor at Dartmouth, Stanford, the University of Pennsylvania, MIT and Harvard at various times — he never earned nor felt the need to earn an academic degree of any kind. Nevertheless, he was awarded Honorary Doctorates from the University of Edinburgh (1965) and the University of Rome (1967).

Mumford's first book, *The Story of Utopias*, was published in 1922 when the author was 27 years old. In a preface to the paperback edition published many years later, Mumford discusses the utopian philosophy which has guided his work for well over a half century:

He who practices the utopian method must view life synoptically and see it as an inter-related whole: not as a random mixture, but as an organic and increasingly organizable union of parts, whose balance it was important to maintain — as in any living organism — in order to promote growth and transcendence.³

Later in the 1920s came *Sticks and Stones: A Study of American Architecture and Civilization* and *The Golden Day*, a landmark book in American literature and culture. Writing of 'pragmatic acquiescence' in the face of burgeoning industrial expansion and the resulting social problems, Mumford praised John Dewey for his commitment to democracy and his attack on conventional education. But he also criticized Dewey for his preoccupation with science and technology in the instrumental sense. Though in tune with many of Dewey's ideas on progressive education, Mumford continued to find fault with Dewey's pragmatism. He consistently underrated Dewey's achievements but, late in life, admitted that because of his own strained relations with Dewey, he did not follow the development of his ideas as closely as he might have.⁴

Mumford's growing interest in cities brought him into contact with leaders of the New Towns Movement in the US and Britain during the 1930s. *The Culture of Cities* in 1938 established him as a world authority on urban culture, past, present and future. When war began in Europe in the late thirties, Mumford harshly criticized Hitler and fascism and called upon the United States to involve itself in the struggle. The US would sacrifice its moral fabric if it turned its back on Europe, he declared. In 1940, he resigned as contributing editor of the *New Republic* to oppose that liberal journal's isolationist stand.

All his life, Mumford has criticized technology which is not sensitive to organic, biological and

aesthetic needs and desires. An organic technology puts people themselves, rather than military, political or financial elites, in control. He has warned for years about the depersonalizing, alienating character of large-scale overbearing technology which he calls the 'megamachine'. In his two volumes of *The Myth of the Machine*, Mumford explores two basic aspects of the machine: one negative, coercive, destructive, and the other positive, life-promoting, constructive. The negative dimension of technology is best seen in the megamachine which involved building of pyramids with slave labor in ancient days and the manufacture of genocidal nuclear missiles in our own day. Mumford considers war 'the body and soul of the megamachine'.⁵ Both the ancient and the modern war-oriented megamachines are oriented toward death, he notes, but the modern one knows no limits since it keeps its commanders physically and emotionally detached. An organic, democratic technology contributing to human health and welfare is strongly favoured by Mumford to fulfil the criterion for the positive, life-affirming, constructive side of technology.

Not surprisingly, Mumford harshly criticized the US dropping of atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki in 1945. A year later he demanded that the US Government stop the Bikini atomic tests and throughout the fifties wrote about the horrors of nuclear war. He spoke out courageously during the McCarthy era, asserting: 'In the name of freedom we are rapidly creating a police state: and in the name of democracy we have succeeded, not to creeping socialism but to galloping Fascism'.⁶

Mumford traces a series of historical transformations from prehistoric times to the present in a volume published in 1956 called *The Transformation of Man*. A contemporary transformation, 'post-historic man', continues and accelerates practices originally introduced by capitalism, advanced technology, bureaucratic administration, and totalitarian government. Human purpose and values have no place in this machine-conditioned culture. But an alternative exists, Mumford asserts: transformation to 'One World Man' whose culture is organically unified, not mechanically rigidified; open, not closed; global, not provincial.

In the transformation to One World, elements of past transformations play a vital role by undergoing regeneration and entering into fresh integrations. One World persons will need to draw strength,

courage and knowledge from all ages, choosing those aspects which serve human interests and rejecting those which depersonalize or dehumanize. 'We now stand at the beginning of an age of cultural cross-fertilization... the first true age of man', Mumford declared in 1951.⁷

To develop a just world order, Mumford proposed a graduated world income tax dependent upon the wealth, resources, and productivity of each nation. One World economy, he mentions, will need to even out gross inequalities in soil, climate and natural resources and the blind assault on nature must be reversed. Though he makes some constructive suggestions about the nature of One World, Mumford's strength rests more on the futuristic concept of One World than on specific measures to achieve such a goal.⁸

Above all, Lewis Mumford is a philosopher-citizen of the world. He is a global educator in the broadest and most profound sense. Mumford is at home in the small village of Amenia, New York, where he and his wife, Sophia, have lived for many years. But he is also at home in New York and Philadelphia and Cambridge, as well as in many cities and towns around the world. Mumford's vision is one of life and beauty and wholeness. And his vision of One World will never age.

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UN University for Peace — A Progress Report

Marion Brown

The Need for Education Enabling Peace

'The best tool for achieving peace for humankind, namely education, has not been used.

'If education has been the instrument of science and technology, there is all the more reason to use it to achieve the conditions for peace.'

This belief is central to the General Principles formulated by the Commission on the University for Peace in Costa Rica, which was established by the General Assembly of the United Nations (Resolution, 34/111 of 14 December 1979).

The Founding of the University for Peace: A Creative Concept

Out of the turbulent political history of Central and South American countries, Costa Rica emerges unique in its characteristics of stable government and change through democratic processes. It is high in literacy, without army or other forms of armament, and is committed to peace as a means of survival.

In 1978, following his country's tradition, the then President of Costa Rica, Rodrigo Carazo, proposed to the General Assembly of the United Nations the creation of a University for Peace. A Commission on the University was formed and work proceeded on an International Agreement and a Charter which came into force 7 April 1981. Twenty-seven Member States of the UN, of diverse political ideologies, have signed the Agreement.

Implementation of the Charter

The University is an international institution of higher education for peace. It will engage in teaching, research, post-graduate training and dissemination of knowledge fundamental to the human person and societies through the interdisciplinary study of all matters related to peace.

The University is international in plan and autonomous. The University Council has representatives from all continents, of the Secretary-General of the UN, the UN Institute of Training and

Research, the UN University, the Director-General of Unesco, and Costa Rica.

Meetings and discussions will provide scientific and technological orientations to problems so that diagnosis will not be purely political. Basic discussions will not have to result in decisions or agreements: the aim is to foster unpressured, open-minded study of the prevention or solution of problems.

Students in graduate education will, in turn, evaluate the conclusions arrived at through the meetings and those conclusions will be disseminated to the rest of the academic world.

Strong Support and Rapid Progress

There is strong support for the University by the United Nations and its agencies. The Secretary-General, Javier Perez de Cuellar, as well as others in the UN Secretariat, have pointed out the need for the reaffirmation of the principles and ideals expressed in the UN Charter. The Charter of the

'Peaceful coexistence, mutual respect, primacy of reason over force, search for wisdom, find in the creation of the University for Peace a new motive for hope. This is even more significant due to the fact that this initiative has taken place in Central America, in a moment in which struggles and threats of external intervention can prevent the people of this region from finding by themselves the path to an integral and peaceful development.'

UNESCO message to the
University for Peace.

University for Peace reaffirms these principles and ideals as the basis for education for peace. Therefore, the acronym for the University sometimes used is UNUP, the United Nations University for Peace.

It has often been said that the wheels of progress grind slowly, but in this instance they have been

grinding with unprecedented speed.

In 1982 — Completion of the first University building with 700 acres of land given by a Costa Rican as a gift; an international foundation created to preserve the acreage, including a primary forest, rare and of immense value in this world where virgin forests are succumbing to slash, burn, and 'development'. After completion of the building, sophisticated (foreign language) equipment installed; two minibuses donated.

In 1983 — The first sessions of the University Council held; Rodrigo Carazo, former teacher, professor and past president of Costa Rica, elected president of the Council.

Development 1983-4

The following indicates some measure of the scope, depth and pattern of interrelated activities of the University. Though they are categorized separately, it is necessary to view the whole as a pattern of action steps taken simultaneously, reinforcing and complementing each other.

1. *Conferences* were held with international leaders, distinguished academicians, and Nobel Laureates to contribute ideas and analyses of problems: in Geneva, 'Peace Now — What Can Be Done?'; in New York at the UN, inaugurating a series of International Colloquia entitled 'Visionarie of World Peace', opening with Pierre Teilhard de Chardin; in San Sebastian, Spain, on 'Terrorism and Violence in Democratic Countries'.

2. *Visits* were made by President of the UNUP Council Rodrigo Carazo to many countries where he received moral and financial support; for example, at the Hague, as head of a mission including political figures and peace specialists, he met with the President of the International Court of Justice; in the Netherlands, with Princess Irene to discuss joint programs between the UNUP and The Netherlands; also delivered the closing speech for the series of courses at the Dutch Institute of the Social Sciences; in Caracas, participated in a meeting with former Latin American Heads of State called by the Congress of the Republic of Venezuela to emphasize the importance of the thoughts and ideals of the Libertador, Simon Bolivar. Back in Europe he participated in a conference on 'Common Security' organized by the Stockholm International Peace Research Institute, with a paper on 'A Central American Perspective'.

3. *Curriculum.* UNUP is presently designing a work programme which should permit academic activities to be initiated by 1985. A preliminary document on curriculum was presented by the Executive Secretary of UNUP to the Curriculum Committee, where it was discussed and approved. It will be submitted to the 1984 Session of the Council for analysis, discussion and action to be taken. The final document will indicate the guidelines for future academic programmes of UNUP both for its campus at Ciudad Colon, in Costa Rica, and for joint programmes with the International Network of Associate Institutions which have committed themselves to collaborating with UNUP. A good deal of UNUP's efforts, up to now, have been concentrated on the organization of precisely such a network of institutions.

4. *Research.* In August 1983 the University's first research programme on a regional theme was begun,

'To discard the instruments of war is not enough. Education for peace can create the real conditions for a peaceful world.'

'Peace is a dynamic concept... a condition of life. Peace is the work of justice and love... but education must be one of its most effective instruments of action.'

'The University for Peace must be the laboratory of the spirit of peace, a crucible in which to form a new mentality of peace. For the twenty-first century shall be peaceful or it shall not be.'

'For the militaristic Latin maxim "Si vis pacem, para bellum" (If you desire peace, prepare for war), the University for peace proposes to substitute a human one. "Si vis pacem, para pacem." (If you desire peace prepare for peace.)'

Rodrigo Carazo to UN General Assembly, 1978.

'the social, political and economic impact of refugees in Central America, Mexico and Panama: Lessons for the Future'. A grant of US \$25,000 was presented to UNUP for this project by the UN High Commissioner for Refugees. Investigation began 1 August 1983 and is expected to be completed by August 1984. The project's main objective is to investigate, from a historical and current point of

view, the refugee situation in the area and existent policies, with a view toward contributing to future legal, economic and social directions by governments, the International Community and by non-governmental organizations (NGOs).

5. *Unesco's Technical Assistance Requested and Received.* Costa Rica is already well known for its outstanding leadership in environmental conservation. To define the priority areas and general directions for the University's 'Natural Resources and Quality of Life' studies programme, Unesco's Director of the Division of Ecological and Social Sciences and the Secretary of the Man and the Biosphere International Co-ordinating Council arranged for an experienced Unesco consultant to meet on campus with UNUP representatives and Costa Rican ecologists for two weeks of planning.

6. *Publications.* UNUP publishes a Newsletter, has begun a series of 'memoirs' on some events carried out by UNUP and is publishing informative materials and documentation on its activities and goals.

The *UNUP Newsletter* reports UNUP plans to publish about 25,000 copies of a Spanish-language journal on environmental planning for distribution among key decision makers and planners throughout the Spanish-speaking world to highlight this comparatively new and widely misunderstood field. This will be the world's first major attempt to complement the activities of the UN international organizations such as UNEP, and Unesco's Man and the Biosphere program, and those of non-governmental organizations to convince Third World planners that environmental planning and economic development must go hand in hand if we are to accomplish a sustainable society. News of the proposed journal has aroused enthusiasm amongst the world's most distinguished environmental planners, many of whom have offered their advice and counsel on the Journal's Advisory Board. Even at this early stage practically all regions of the world are represented on the Board.

7. *Agreements for Co-operation.* UNUP recently signed an Agreement with the International Youth and Students' Movement on United Nations Affairs (ISMUN) of Geneva, an NGO with consultative status with the Economic and Social Council of the UN. The Agreement commits ISMUN to help reinforce the efforts to obtain more government members of the UN to become signa-

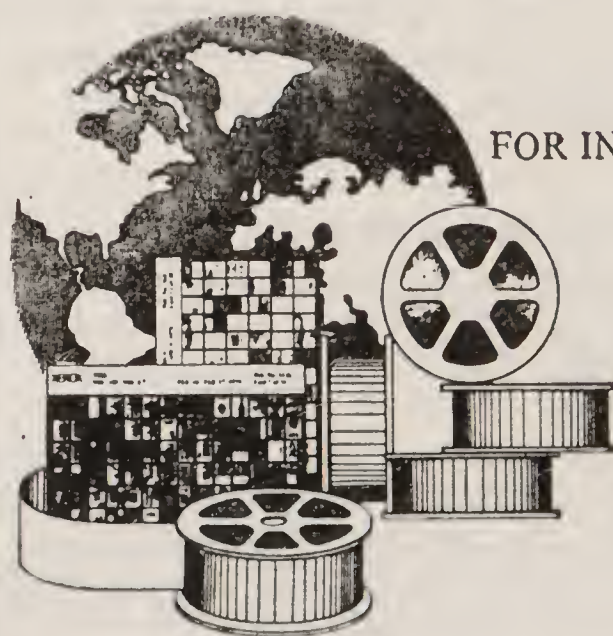
tories of the UNUP Charter: to help UNUP in obtaining wider dissemination of its programmes and activities; to maintain an interchange of general information and the utilization of the two organizations' respective facilities for activities to promote peace.

The Director of the Gujarat Vidyapyth Peace Research Centre, during his visit to UNUP, signed an Agreement for study of the initiation of joint programmes in the fields of peace, disarmament and human rights.

8. *The Founding of Co-operating Associations.* Interested persons are forming associations to support the UNUP in their respective countries: The Netherlands, Costa Rica and the United States.

The principles, ideals and goals of WEF are consonant with those embodied in the Charter of the University for Peace and the Charter of the United Nations. WEF International President, Madhuri Shah, in her keynote address for the 31st WEF International Conference, stressed the urgency of the

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need in education for study and analysis of problems in today's world to find solutions providing for the well being of the people of all countries and, thus, the conditions for peace. She presented clear-cut guidelines and suggested immediate steps for education and research directly related to today's problems, economic, social, environmental and political (*N.E.* 64.1 1983, pp 2-4). The next WEF International Conference in August 1984 carries forward our theme, education for peace, to enlist the arts.

Supporting UNUP

How can we give ourselves the satisfaction of involvement in creating a new way of life? We can reach out to everyone in our communities to inform them about the University for Peace, orally and through WEF publications; articles in Chapter Newsletters, and in our international journal, *The New Era*; through the public media, school publications and professional journals for educators.

We can provide the basis for national networks among Chapters and an international network with

our members and friends among our sections worldwide.

We can organize information, resources and expertise from our membership to assist in program development; assist in the efforts and tasks in activities of the University for Peace in our communities and with Unesco.

And whenever and wherever possible, we can gather funds. The Charter of the University for Peace states that it is to be supported entirely by voluntary funding; by individuals, governments, and inter-governmental organizations.

Plans are under way for development of support groups by non-governmental organisations such as ours all over the world.

If you would like to develop a support group in your community you will be given help to get started by writing to PO Box 199, Escazu, Costa Rica.

Marion Brown is WEF representative at the United Nations, and Associate Editor for the Americas of *The New Era*.

Forthcoming Conferences and Lectures

Who Needs The Arts? The Arts in Education for International Understanding and Peace

32nd WEF International Conference. On: August 12-18 1984. At: Utrecht, Holland. Details: WEF National Section Secretaries, or WEF General Secretary (for addresses, see inside back cover).

Peace Education Network Annual Conference

On July 20-22. At: Beechwood College, Leeds, UK. Details: Stefanie Duczek, York Peace Centre, 15a Clifford Street, York YO1 1RG, UK. Phone (0904) 642493.

Youth Counselling

Eleventh International Round Table for the Advancement of Counselling. On: August 5-9. At: University of Aarhus, Denmark. Details: Derek Hope, Brunel University, Uxbridge, Middlesex UB8 3PH, UK.

The Core Curriculum — Threat or Promise to a Global Perspective?

Annual Conference of Standing Conference on Education for International Understanding (SCEIU). On: November 17. At: London House, London WC1. Details: Richard Tames, SOAS, London University, Malet Street, London WC1E 7HP. Phone (01) 637 2388.

Responding to Inequality in Britain and the World

World Studies Teacher Network. On: September 14-16. At: Oxford Polytechnic. Details: Hugh Starkey, Westminster College, Oxford, UK. Phone (0865) 247644.

From Our Columns

I remember how one of our rather rough boys, years ago, one day came to 'the workshop' with the rusty blade of a spade. He had found it in the wood, and came to me with the usual question, 'Kees, can you make use of this?'. 'Yes, rather; of course I can', I answered. So Jan worked at the old piece of iron with sandpaper, made a wooden handle for it, painted it red (!) and offered it to the workshop. We used it for years afterwards . . .

I like to see a child, with his head a little on one side, admiring his own production, caressing it as it were with his eyes. I am sure it helps to give the joy of work, more than when under the disciplinary charge of an adult a perfect article has been produced.

Kees Boeke 'Manual Work in the Bilthoven Children's Community' *The New Era* Vol. 17 (1) 1936, p12.

1984 is the centenary of the birth of Kees Boeke, founder of the Dutch Section of WEF.

Who Needs The Arts? — Conference Preview

Lida Dijkema and Peter van Stapele

Conference Theme, Place and Date

Who Needs the Arts? The Need for the Arts in Education for International Understanding and Peace, the 32nd International Conference of the World Education Fellowship (WEF) will be held on August 12 to 18 1984 at the Academy of Dramatic Art (Akademie voor Expressie door Woord en Gebaar), Sint Janskerhof 18, Utrecht, The Netherlands. (Maps and train timetables will be mailed to all participants in early July.)

Participants

Some 150 participants will come from all continents: from Australia, Belgium, Chile, Great Britain, India, Israel, Japan, Jordan, Kenya, Korea, The Netherlands, Nicaragua, Pakistan, The Philippines, Sri Lanka, Surinam, the USA, West Germany.

Activities

Plenary sessions (few), group-discussions, lectures, workshops, performances, demonstrations, films (+ videos), reception, symposium, exhibitions, display of materials, excursions, annual general meeting of WEF, end of conference festivities.

Conference Secretariat

WVO/WEF Dutch Section, van Merlenstraat 104, 2518TJ Den Haag, The Netherlands. Phone: 070-46 29 81 (Lida Dijkema or Peter van Stapele).

The chief work of the secretariat, the conference planning committee and the conference director (Peter van Stapele) has been in programme planning, responding to those who will attend the conference, and organising the administrative and domestic affairs (hotels, conference centre, etc).

Already there are some 60 proposals for presentation to the conference, and we expect more.

Presentations

A few examples from a wide and varied range:
AFRICA — Ben Gitau from Nairobi, Kenya, will give a paper and show films on *African Arts*.
AMERICAS — Central and South America — The Nicaraguan Committee and Venceremos in the

Netherlands will organise an exhibition on *Culture in Central America*, and a musical performance of Latin American songs. **USA** — Karin Gottier from Vernon, Connecticut, is organising a participatory workshop *Teaching Culture Through Dance* for people with little or no dance experience. Participants will discuss the function of dance in human society, its social value and how to use dance in teaching foreign languages and cultural history. Dances from Europe, the Balkans, the USA and Asia will be featured. Lisle and Ruth Crawford from Detroit, Michigan, will use young people's work in theatre arts in an experiential workshop *Drama, Intercultural Understanding and Conflict Resolution*.

This will relate to workshops led by Tony Weaver on *Drama and Non-violent Action*, and Mildred Mashedier on *Co-operation and Peaceful Conflict—Solving through Drama*, both from Great Britain.

ASIA — India — Biharilal Joshi from Bombay is bringing a troupe of dancers who will present *live Indian classical and folk dances and music* for an hour each day. He will also arrange a workshop and an exhibition, show video tapes of Indian classical and folk dances, and give a paper *Teaching of arts is the first natural step of education*. Safia Sultana from Aligarh, UP, will discuss *Art and Human Environment*. Her concern is the pollution of the environment: awareness time for children begins at home in familiar surroundings; the art teacher can make the students aware of their environment.

Japan — Yuri Fujii from Tokyo will discuss *History and the Current Status of Art Education in Japanese Private Schools*, reporting on the history of art education (particularly fine arts, music and drama) as practised in the Tamagawa Educational Institute (university, college, high school, junior high school, primary school and kindergarten) founded by her father, Dr Kuniyoshi Obara.

Sri Lanka — Johannes Odé from Rotterdam, The Netherlands, is organising an exhibition and a workshop on *Health and Coconuts. Children's Drawings from Sri Lanka*, in co-operation with

children and teachers of schools in Sri Lanka and the Netherlands. The exhibition gives an impression of daily life, education and health care as depicted by Sri Lankan children.

Australia — Alan Duncan from Sydney will talk on *Aboriginal Education and Aboriginal Advancement* based upon his research on indigenous groups in Australia, Canada and Northern Europe. Frank McKone from Canberra will discuss *Negotiating the Drama Curriculum with Senior Secondary Students*. He will conduct a workshop drawing on his experiences in teaching and writing drama courses.

EUROPE — *West Germany* — Ernst Meyer from Heidelberg is planning in co-operation with Das Audiovisuelle Zentrum der Pädagogischen Hochschule to make video recordings of parts of the conference, to use the video tapes and other materials for educational purposes. These recordings may be helpful for other participants who want to continue working on the experiences from the conference. During the conference we also have the video equipment of the Academy of Dramatic Art in Education at our disposal, for use in workshops, lectures and other activities.

Great Britain — Rex Andrews from London will discuss *Literature Against Dogma* (see his paper: 'Goldilocks Among the Microchips: The Educational Role of Imaginative Literature in a Technological World', (N.E. 63.3 1982, pp 95-99). Claudia Clarke from London will lead a workshop on *A Multicultural Humanities Course in World Studies*, centred on music. The course is intended for a 'foundation year' in secondary school or final year in a primary school, and focuses on: Africa, Asia and Europe.

The Netherlands — Marjanne Maaskant from Rotterdam is organising a *Theatre Workshop*, based on the theory and one of the techniques of the Brazilian Augusto Boal, author of *Theatre of the Oppressed* (translated by C. A. and M-O. L. McBride, Pluto Press, London 1979) and her experiences in Nicaragua.

Van Stapele Family and Friends from different parts of The Netherlands will organise a *Home Workshop* to create a homelike environment in the conference centre where people can relax, drink tea, listen to music, bring their children, make puppets (come alive), watch films (video), make music, draw, paint, dance, listen to stories, tell stories, learn the secrets of make-up, have a game, and do many other

small but beautiful things. The Workshop is meant for young people of every age. During the conference, the people who organise the workshop will give small performances, such as:

- *Anansi-tori* (spider-stories from the Caribbean, by Ramon Polak, story-teller and illusionist)
- Silhouette-theatre (Family, performance by children)
- Arts of the Muslim World (Mohammed Larbi Aguerdouch)
- Musical Performance (Franky Berhиту, Lesley May, Menace in Wonderland/Job Goedhart, and others)
- The art of mime and masks (make-up — Family).

In July, a provisional program will be sent to all participants, together with a short description of all the contributions.

Some Practical Information

All visitors must have a valid national passport. All visitors should contact their nearest Dutch Consulate *now* for up-to-date information concerning visa requirements. All participants who have registered for the conference have received a letter in which we have confirmed their registration, to show, if necessary, to authorities at port-of-entry.

We are reserving hotel rooms in the Holiday Inn (15 minutes walk or two bus stops to conference centre) and Hotel Pays Bas (2 minutes walk to conference centre).

It will be mid-summer, but the weather in The Netherlands can sometimes be chilly, even in the summer. We advise you to bring a warm sweater or jacket, especially for the evenings. Rainwear is necessary.

There will be a walking-tour through the city of Utrecht (especially the old parts). We hope to organise a post-conference tour (by bus) through Holland, and especially through Amsterdam (including the art museums). If you are interested in this tour, please let us know, and you will receive information about it directly. As soon as we have definite plans for the tour, we will send the participants information with regard to registering for the tour.

We are looking forward to receiving you in The Netherlands, in Utrecht, in the Academy of Dramatic Art in Education.

For further details, contact national WEF Section Secretaries (see inside back cover) or Lida Dijkema or Peter van Stapele, van Merlenstraat 104, Den Haag, 2518 TJ, The Netherlands.

Reviews

Inner London Education Authority; *Race, Sex and Class*: 1. *Achievement in Schools*, pp 24. 2. *Multi-Ethnic Education in Schools*, pp 28. 3. *A Policy for Equality: Race*, pp 7. 4. *Anti-racist Statement and Guidelines*, pp 8, 1983. ILEA, County Hall, London.

When dealing with problems and designing solutions it is essential to start with a felt need and then define and formulate the problem. During the formulation stage information is vital. Too often in schools we scramble to provide speedy solutions to ill-defined problems, then fall to wringing, even washing, our hands as the action planning and implementation stages founder. The Inner London Education Authority has done teachers a great service by publishing these four well produced booklets full of information and ideas. The booklets are provided to help schools 'examine the question of achievement in education from the vantage point of working class children, black children and girls'.

The evidence set out by Dr Peter Mortimore, head of the ILEA Research and Statistics Department, and his team, highlights three factors that affect students' ability to achieve their potential within the school system — social class, sex, and ethnic origin. It is clearly stated that the idea that the bottom forty per cent outside the present examination system are a special breed is to be challenged and is not acceptable. The problem is defined as the need to ensure that whole groups of children achieve. Individuals can be labelled by the system and so underachieve. The initiative in these booklets is to consider differences of achievement by defined groups; question such differences and seek reasons for them; and provide ideas for positive action.

The first booklet, *Achievement in Schools*, sets out the problem. Graphs, diagrams and a cartoon all help the presentation which is well laid out and readable. The research evidence is presented clearly and in an open-ended manner. It is stated, for example, that Driver's evidence for superior West Indian achievement has been questioned. It is stressed that there is no simple explanation for differences in the academic achievement of pupils from different ethnic origins but the factual evi-

dence of recorded achievement is outlined. The booklet goes on to review the initiatives that have been taken and suggests ways in which teachers can help. These are practical: providing homework clubs to help pupils with poor facilities at home; monitoring experiments in teaching single-sex groups within mixed schools; accepting and building upon the diversity of cultures in a school. The booklet ends by signposting the way to gather more information by giving a list of 158 references.

The second booklet, *Multi-Ethnic Education in Schools*, displays the manner in which the ILEA itself has moved forward in the problem solving process. The multi-ethnic policy of 1977 has been refined and indeed changed by seeking the black perspective. 'Rather than define needs on behalf of black pupils, the Authority has listened to the words of black representatives.' This led to the publication of the third booklet, *A Policy for Equality: Race*. This was sent to all staff in the ILEA in September 1983. The final booklet, *Anti-Racist Statement and Guidelines*, is a clear statement of a set of principles and suggestions as to the way ahead. The need to harness the combined talents and resources of all colleagues is stressed and the booklets are excellent examples of a purposeful way in which to engage people in discussions. The fourth booklet ends in ringing tones: 'We must confront all the possibilities and manifestations of racism, in ourselves, in our actions and in our institutions'.

The ILEA must survive. There is apparently no other organisation in Britain with the resources and the will to open up such problems in our society today. Any democracy must encourage informed, participative decision making. These publications enshrine the way in which information about sensitive areas in society can be provided so that schools and colleges can enter into their own debate within a clearly defined framework. These booklets thus have a twofold value. They could prove helpful to those seeking to tackle the problems which they open up and they provide an interesting example of the way in which a large organisation can go about problem solving.

COLIN BAYNE-JARDINE
Headmaster,
Henbury School, Bristol.

R. D. Baynes. *At the Hub: Secondary Schools in Multi Ethnic Urban Areas, Boston and Haringey*. Extra-mural Division, School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London. Occasional Papers I, 1982, 40pp.

Brian Chalkley. *Education for International Understanding in the United Kingdom*. Extra-mural Division, School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London. Occasional Papers II, 1982, 37pp.

David Edgington. *The Role of History in Multicultural Education*. Extra-mural Division, School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London. Occasional Papers IV, 1982, 44pp.

Helen Kanitkar and Robert Jackson. *Hindus in Britain*. Extra-mural Division, School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London. Occasional Papers VI, 1983, 32pp.

The Extra-mural Department of the School of Oriental and African Studies (SOAS), the University of London, offers one term Fellowships to practising teachers. It has recently decided to publish their reports in the form of Occasional Papers. Three of the four papers reviewed are the work of Teacher Fellows; the fourth is the result of the combined efforts of Robert Jackson, a former Teacher Fellow and now a Senior Lecturer in Arts Education at the University of Warwick, and Helen Kanitkar, a member of the Department of Anthropology and Sociology at the SOAS.

At the Hub: Secondary Schools in Multi Ethnic Urban Areas: Boston and Haringey is a very interesting and readable paper written by R. D. Baynes, who visited Boston, USA, 'the Hub', while on secondment from his job as the Headmaster of Stationers' Company School in Haringey, England. The purpose of the visit was to study Boston's experience in the field of multi cultural education,

as, according to Stephen Thernstron, Boston was an "excellent laboratory in which to explore such questions: for more than a century the history of the community has been in large measure the history of the immigrants and their children."

Threequarters of the children in Mr Baynes' school came from families where the parents had been born overseas, hence the twenty-five different languages used by them.

The paper is an exposition based on Mr Baynes' personal experiences and reflects an attempt by him to understand the situation in Haringey by looking at Boston, and to think of any appropriate action he should take. The presentation of the experiences is impressive as he attempts to examine the overall policy and social structures within which schools are operating. Thus the paper looks specifically at some models of ethnic accommodation, the secondary schools of Boston, desegregation in 1974, and has observations on the Boston schools.

The publication is valuable for all educators although the reader does need to exercise caution. Some of the statements such as 'affirmative discrimination' being national policy in Britain are not true, and many issues relating to education for a multicultural society that are raised in the paper are not followed through.

One of the few publications on the subject is David Edgington's *The Role of History In Multicultural Education*. On the whole, however, this is a disappointing paper. Any teacher, whether or not he/she has had any experience in the field of multicultural education, should be able to look to such a publication for clarity of concepts and guidance for classroom teaching. The paper is discursive and does not clarify the issues.

The first ten pages are taken up with the general question of multicultural education which does not link directly with the role of history. He is right in emphasizing the relevance of both content and skills, but only lists four points — roots, change, enquiry, and the nature of evidence — that history should be concerned with. Other key points such as the development of empathy are mentioned later, but none of them is discussed in any satisfactory detail.

Edgington makes reference to examinations in the section dealing with specific case studies of history teaching. Those papers that reflect a wider approach to history teaching are mentioned, but a thorough analysis of the overall content of the examination

ST. CHRISTOPHER SCHOOL LETCHWORTH

is an educational community of some 500 boys, girls and adults practising education on successful modern lines. The seven school houses provide living and teaching accommodation for children from 4 to 18. It is situated on the edge of the Garden City, amidst rural surroundings and beautiful gardens.

syllabi, and the consequences for the content of history teaching in schools is only touched upon. In many ways this deficiency is remedied in an earlier paper from SOAS by Brian Chalkley, *Education for International Understanding in the United Kingdom* (EIU), with the subtitle of *A Study of the Syllabuses of the GCE and CSE Examination Boards to Assess their International Content*. The preliminary survey of examination syllabi was completed in 1979 and the material appearing in the paper has been updated and revised.

Syllabi from 24 examination boards, including the International Baccalaureate, were studied. The results are discussed under separate subject headings, i.e. geography, history, religious studies, language and literature (including English), social sciences, general paper or general studies, other humanities, business studies (including government), arts and crafts, and finally, mathematics, sciences and technical subjects.

The author acknowledges the problems of defining education for international understanding and resolves the issues for the purposes of the paper by adopting a very broad and personal approach. The definition is that EIU is

‘formal and informal processes whereby individuals gain knowledge of other cultures, peoples, and religions, and of political, economic, and social systems in addition to their own, together with an understanding of the reasons for their development and adoption’.

Of necessity the study had to be limited to one aspect of EIU, i.e. the formal examination syllabuses of the General Certificate of Education (GCE) and the Certificate in Secondary Education (CSE) examination boards, concentrating on the Mode I syllabuses, the examination papers of some boards, and the reports of examiners.

Four examination boards were selected for the study, two representing what may be termed the more normal syllabus and the other two showing a tendency to include an international dimension within various subject syllabi. The *total* number of questions from all the boards was likely to be 100,000, and the options taken by the students would number 18,000.

The detailed analysis is very revealing, although a summary chart would also have been helpful in highlighting the main tendencies. The general con-

clusion of the author is that on the whole the examination boards have not done very much towards incorporating an international dimension in their syllabi. Even where there is some international angle in the syllabus, the examination boards give very limited guidance to the teacher about aims, objectives, and approaches.

The fourth SOAS Occasional Paper is *Hindus in Britain* by Helen Kanitkar and Robert Jackson. This paper was originally conceived as part of a projected volume on world religions which has now been published. The emphasis in the paper is thus on religion, the first part dealing with faith and practices, the second with teaching about Hindus in the classroom.

The very useful starting off point for this paper is the following statement:

‘For there to be Hindus in Britain is no new experience, but for them to be active, believing, participating members of a socially and culturally lively Hindu community here, is’.

An extract from the statement of a Hindu visitor to England in the 1880s reminds us of the contact between Hindus and Englishmen *prior* to the latter half of this century, indicating the constant mix of people and ideas in Britain and well as India.

The distinction between the early and the later arrivals is shown in the relative socio-economic statuses, objectives in settlement in Britain and the effect on the population structure and distribution. A reader new to the subject would not get a very clear picture of the different groups and their distribution, although the difficulty of getting accurate statistics has to be accepted. The East African background of many Hindus is also emphasized, as well as the presence of groups such as the Swam-

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inarayan Sect and the Maharashtrians. The complexity of sects, sub-sects, and castes is baffling and needs to be clearly described, in addition to the linguistic variations. The section on teaching about Hinduism is valuable.

Two very important suggestions are made by the authors which need to be taken up by the appropriate authorities/individuals. The first one is that British schools have a major responsibility in presenting Hinduism in Britain in a constructive and positive way. Secondly, Hindu authors now living in Britain must provide more books and resources that are badly needed, especially for children.

These papers from SOAS must be welcomed because they provide encouragement for teachers to widen their experiences. The drawbacks in the individual papers call for some re-thinking on the long-term merits of such publications. The work of the individual Teacher Fellows within the framework of broader departmental projects may be the answer.

SNEH SHAH

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Hertfordshire College of Higher Education,
and member of WEF Guiding Committee.

C. Ezeomah. *The Education of Nomadic People: The Fulani of Northern Nigeria*. Driffeld, North Humberside. Nafferton-Deanhouse. 1983. 142pp. £4.75, pb.

When I was teaching at a university in one of the northern states of Nigeria, Fulani cattle herdsman, often only young children, similar to those depicted on the cover of this book, regularly wandered across the edges of the campus with their scrawny humped cattle in search of pasturage. That was probably the nearest most came, or still come, to formal education. Their education largely consists, as it has done for centuries, of learning the complex survival skills required for nomadic herdsmanhood. Although, as Ezeomah's study shows, some Cattle Fulani children are sent to Koranic and, to a lesser extent, local government primary schools, at least for some of the time, provision for formal education geared to their particular social and cultural needs is at best patchy and spasmodic and for the most part non-existent.

Ezeomah limits his description to the provision of formal education in just a few areas of five northern states and one can only assume that this

represents the little that is on offer anywhere. Despite the introduction of Universal Primary Education (UPE) in 1976 Cattle Fulani are, in the language of Ezeomah and his fellow educational sociologists and planners, 'educationally disadvantaged', and this over and above the disadvantages one might consider already exist in the more rural and isolated areas in the northern states in terms of the quantity and quality of the education available. Insofar as traditional education enabled the Cattle Fulani to acquire the necessary knowledge to maintain their livestock, secure fresh pasturage and co-exist with their neighbours, both the settled Fulani Torobe and other ethnic groups, one could even consider the nomads, despite their general illiteracy, to be already rather well-educated. A revealing paragraph states: 'To most people, the pastoral Fulani lives in his isolated world and knows much about his cattle and little or nothing about the outside world. But...in the market, when he exchanges ideas with other people (he) reveals that he knows many things outside his occupation and settlement. In his nomadic life, he comes into contact with different ethnic groups... Because he is bilingual or even multilingual, he understands more about the culture of the sedentary people than they understand his own culture.'

But, according to Dr Ezeomah, the supreme aim of (formal) education is not only 'to change undesirable attitudes of the country's children but also to enable them to be responsive to modern ways of life, equipping them *to alter their society* [my italics] and at the same time retain what is good in their culture' (p12). And that certainly begs a lot of questions.

By means of oral interviews, questionnaires and research in the field, Ezeomah and his colleagues set out to identify the attitudes of the Fulani to formal education, whether of the Koranic or Western variety, and what advantages they saw in it for themselves and their children. To some extent the findings, and the conclusions, are unsurprising. Over 80% thought education 'a good thing', thought Western-style education in particular would increase knowledge of animal diseases and how to cure them, and were a little chary of voicing opinions as to what their neighbours might think. Educational resources being what they are, a mobile unit here, an itinerant Koranic teacher there, a special school in one area, an ordinary primary school in another, and

very little co-ordinated planning at federal let alone State and local level, there seems little immediate expectation that the majority of nomadic children or adults will receive much in the way of formal education beyond that which they pick up incidentally on the virtually ubiquitous transistor radio. And what prospects that, properly developed, holds for the future!

Some of the most interesting aspects of this slim volume were the questions left unanswered. I was grateful for the brief but illuminating account of the history of the Fulani peoples, the relationships between the settled and the nomadic groups, and the description of the Cattle Fulani patterns of migration and traditional beliefs. Comparison with other countries, for example Australia and Britain in their respective provisions for Aboriginal and travelling peoples, were dropped rather self-consciously into the text. Inadequate proof-reading and very poor reproduction of black and white photographs are needless irritants.

This may be a pioneering study but a good deal more work needs to be done not only in the area of the basic research but in the way the findings of that research are presented to the public.

MAGGIE BUTCHER
Deputy Chief Education Officer,
Commonwealth Institute, London.

Altaf Gauhar. *Talking About Development*. London. Third World Foundation. 1983. 325pp.

Little dates faster than yesterday's news except perhaps yesterday's interviews. This book is a collection of interviews by Altaf Gauhar (editor of *South* magazine and *Third World Quarterly* where they originally appeared) between 1978 and 1981 with a selection of politicians, international civil servants and other eminent pundits. Most are well known figures like Willy Brandt, Sonny Ramphal, Lee Kuan Yew, Michael Manley, Indira Gandhi, Olof Palme, Julius Nyerere, Robert Mugabe and Kurt Waldheim. Perhaps less well-known but very influential people like Gamani Corea, Raul Prebisch, Ralf Dahrendorf, Milos Minic, Jan Pronk and Rudiger Von Wechmar also appear.

The interviews are very much concerned with the North-South dialogue and the global context

(especially superpower rivalry and disarmament issues) but in relation to the situation which obtained at the time. Much of the conversation relates to the Brandt report, which was either impending or recently published, and to various contemporary rounds of summitry, conferences and negotiations. The Iranian revolution was fresh in people's minds, and gets frequent mention. To give an idea of how the interviews are often concerned with dated detail, two pages of one interview are concerned with the question of whether or not President Reagan would or would not attend the Cancun summit.

Another disappointing feature of the book is that the interviews are quite brief, and fail to discuss serious and complex issues with the length that they deserve. Many of the questions elicit vague rhetoric and windbagging, especially those in which Gauhar develops his own line of thought and then invites the interviewee to agree with him.

Another weakness is the uniformity of viewpoint of the subjects. They nearly all belong to the Brandt Commission school of thought (several of them were members of it) that aid to the Third World should be massively increased, that the Third World should have more control of aid, but most of all that the world economic system should be restructured so that the Third World gets a better deal. The view of development that emerges is that it is externally generated or inhibited, and there is hardly any discussion of the internal obstacles to development within developing countries, as though these did not exist or were insignificant. One might conclude from reading this book that if only delegates from industrialised countries at UNCTAD and similar conferences were to adopt a less obdurate attitude, the Third World would be on the high road to prosperity.

Nevertheless there are a few nuggets, I liked Sonny Ramphal's denunciation of the hypocrisy surrounding aid. Indira Gandhi makes the point that too much criticism is directed at institutions, when it is the people who compose them who matter. Lee Kuan Yew is unblushingly authoritarian in his approach and should have the last word.

'It's a vast subject which we can't cover in forty minutes.'

PAUL HURST
Senior Lecturer,
Department of Education for Developing Countries,
University of London Institute of Education.

Unesco: Projects on International Understanding and Peace. K. C. Vyas. Somaiya Publications Pvt. Ltd. Bombay. 90 Rs.

In spite of much good will and discussion, education to make children aware that they do indeed live in 'One World' is still patchy and scrappy in most schools — a visit here, a project there, a few study sessions fitted in when the pressure of traditional subject courses is not too great, perhaps some pupil exchanges. We all know that this is not good enough but find it difficult to generate a proper element of international feeling and thinking within our schools.

One of the reasons why good will in this area so often falls short of appropriate action is that teachers lack the time to get the potentially vast content into any sort of manageable order. The present depletion of resources and personnel accentuates that difficulty. When under pressure, it is always tempting to stick to the well-known roads instead of moving out into unfamiliar territory, and, also, of working on the sometimes awkward task of tying material about international understanding into the general curriculum.

For this reason, Dr Vyas's eminently practical handbook is particularly welcome at the present time. He is not, incidentally, dealing with UNESCO in isolation but with UNESCO's aim of developing insight about a whole spectrum of international issues from Women's Rights to the Youth Hostel Movement; from humanity's quest for food to the struggle for freedom. The book's aim is to draw young people into a sense of involvement in the affairs and future of Planet Earth, making use of a variety of approaches in doing so. The book provides the raw material for expanding the perspective of young people to embrace the wider world.

One valuable feature is that Dr Vyas offers a succinct resumé of the different roles of the organizations of the United Nations. Those who get lost among 'all those capital letters' will be grateful for this clarification; it also sets teachers up with the basic information they need to answer the questions as they come along in discussion, as they surely will. What is the difference between FAO and WHO; the relationship between the work of UNESCO and that of UNICEF; what is ILO's role in the international scene? How is it all organized anyway? Dr Vyas

enables teachers and pupils readily to clarify these background issues.

The course he offers is for mutual education — which is the role of all good modern orientation courses. The 'I'll teach you' approach to education has now to give way to the more exciting, dignified and co-operative 'Let's learn together'. This is true over a whole range of studies; finding out about our world is a good basis for practising such combined enterprises. To work together on study themes is first-class contemporary education because we are now way beyond the 'teacher knows all' era, and pupils have to learn that the only way to know in a changing world is to keep finding out.

The book is packed with projects for developing international understanding and peace, presented with details of aims, appropriate age-range for participants, aspects calling for special attention, appropriate activities, points of integration with the rest of the curriculum, and approaches to evaluation. Some are India-related, and draw on local resources, but most are of universal application, and all provide pertinent ideas for international projects. All is on offer to enable busy teachers to browse, select, and take off in a fruitful direction.

A great strength of the book is that it is not arm-chair stuff. The author is principal of the New Era School in Bombay which, for 25 years, has been one of UNESCO's Associated Schools. The projects outlined are a selection of the school's work on 'International Co-operation and Peace' during the past quarter of a century. All the themes have been tested in the classroom. They come to us with the blessing of the Indian National Commission for UNESCO and the backing of UNESCO itself.

For teachers involved in education for international understanding, this handbook supplies a great range of possibilities which can be used as they are or reshaped to serve teachers' particular needs and interests. The book is informative and evocative but never prescriptive. It provides a set of signposts pointing the way to the type of themes that can bring children and teachers together in studying the struggle to bring harmony and amity to the human community. Dr Vyas is to be congratulated on a valuable contribution to education for international understanding.

JAMES HEMMING
WEF Guiding Committee.

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Journal of the World Education Fellowship

Editorial

The crisis facing Unesco by the threatened withdrawal of the USA and possibly by other governments as well, must give concern to all who are involved or interested in relationships among nations and peoples. American withdrawal would not only have serious financial consequences, given that the USA provides approximately one quarter of Unesco's budget, but would weaken the Organisation in many other ways as well. The World Education Fellowship has always closely identified itself with Unesco, having been a Category B Non-Governmental Organisation since 1947. Many WEF members played important roles in Unesco's founding. In this issue, Malcolm Skilbeck reviews the criticisms that have been made of Unesco and urges the need for active support for it in the next few critical months.

Some of the longstanding educational goals of the WEF and progressive education are addressed by Charles Hannam, in his article on discipline and by John Stephenson's report on WEF (Great Britain's) annual conference, this year on the theme of examination reform and student assessment. These articles are a reminder that imagination and purposeful action continue to be required to bring the values and ideals of democracy, freedom and respect for persons in education to any kind of realisation in the practice of schooling.

Claudia Clarke writes about another of the Fellowship's continuing interests, and the subject of the 1984 biennial conference, the place of the arts in education. Her article presents the case for music, an art form which is threatened by financial constraints, acknowledges the very real pressures in schools, and suggests practical and economical ways for developing school music programmes, especially at the primary age level. In our next issue, we will continue this theme in reports of the Utrecht Conference.

One of the fastest growing and most interesting movements in contemporary education is the emergence of the community college as a major force in

the education of young (and not so young) adults. Maxwell King and Seymour Fersh provide an up-to-date resume of the movement, as viewed from their own flourishing institution, Brevard College. The world-wide expansion of places in post secondary education has been checked somewhat, in many countries, by the economic recession, yet the demand continues to rise and perhaps the community college is, as King and Fersh argue, one of the best available means for meeting it.

Our reviews, in this issue start with a major review article on multiculturalism by James Banks, author of an article on the same subject in our last issue. Other reviews demonstrate our wish to maintain a strong review section dealing mainly with books that fall broadly within the stated aims and concerns of the Fellowship. Suggestions for books to review, especially those published in the countries where WEF has sections, will be very welcome.

Writing for The New Era

Themes for future issues

The editorial board of *The New Era* met during the Fellowship's conference in Utrecht in August. It was agreed that articles, reports and reviews for future issues would be sought on the following themes:

- * the assessment of learning
- * student participation
- * early childhood education
- * pedagogy of basic education
- * nature of educational provision for 14+
- * educational consequences and implications of the economy, technology, and demography
- * education for international life
- * educational alternatives
- * education of professionals involved in schooling

Articles and suggestions for articles on these themes will be welcome (see *Editorial Communications* inside front cover). *The New Era* is a refereed journal and advice will be given on manuscripts submitted.

The crisis over UNESCO

by Malcolm Skilbeck

In December 1983, the United States declared its intention to withdraw from Unesco at the end of 1984. The Governments of the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and West Germany have, during 1984, signified their dissatisfaction with aspects of Unesco's programmes, administration and budget. Whether the United States will hold to its stated intention to withdraw, is not entirely certain nor is it clear whether the United Kingdom and possibly other countries will follow suit. In the countries named, many groups, including Non-Governmental Organisations affiliated with Unesco (as is the World Education Fellowship) have been campaigning to try to persuade their Governments not to sever links. What follows is an edited text of a speech given by Malcolm Skilbeck, Chairman of World Education Fellowship and Editor of *The New Era* at a meeting in London on 25th September, organised by the United Nations Association of the U.K.

The Unesco constitution was adopted at the founding conference nearly forty years ago in London. Throughout the whole history of the organisation, Britain has played a crucial role. In human terms, this has included leadership and participation by illustrious figures such as Julian Huxley, the first Director-General. No less important, British scientists, educators and specialists in many fields of culture and communication have played a full part as field workers, consultants, advisers and staff members. Also, Britain contributes 4.5% of the budget and provides the organisation with an efficient audit service.

With this background, why should it have seemed necessary for the British Minister of Overseas Development, the Rt. Hon. Timothy Raison, on the 2nd April this year to write to the Director-General of Unesco, Mr Amadou-Mahtar M'Bow, conveying Her Majesty's Government's disquiet and unease over some of the key functions and processes of the Organisation? In order to answer this question, we must consider briefly some of the problems the Organisation has been faced with, and in particular the challenge posed to it by the US announcement of its intention to withdraw.

Development of Unesco

The world now is very different from the world

of 1945 when Unesco was founded. The devastating experience of war in Europe, the destruction and disruption of economic life, the distortion of science and culture through their engrossment with warfare and the fact that most of the present member states of Unesco were at that time parts of colonial empires: these are but some of the features we need to bear in mind in considering where Unesco has come from and why it is in its present situation.

Unesco was established specifically to contribute through policies and programmes in education, science and culture, to the reconstruction of a war-devastated world and to the development of new and better forms of social and cultural life for all mankind. The pursuit of these broad and idealistic purposes in a rapidly changing environment has necessarily involved Unesco in some of the most profound, complex and controversial issues of our time. How could it possibly have acted according to its own Constitution and principles by standing aside from or ignoring such concerns as illiteracy, poverty, social inequality and injustice, political, economic and social barriers to education, the technological and other forces that structure communications between peoples and nations and the complex problems of international cooperation over environmental management and the preservation of the world's cultural heritage?

The origins of Unesco lie in the hope that education, science and culture might themselves become part of a civilised alternative to warfare and destructive conflicts of all kinds. However, wars have persisted and one of the most dangerous and depressing forms of tension in the world today is the massive arms build up.

It would be irresponsible indeed for Unesco to have carried out its programmes of work and to have engaged in conferences, discussions and debates as if these social, economic, political and psychological realities could be put to one side. The central problem that Unesco has faced from its inception is to define and follow a path that at one and the same time acknowledges and responds to these realities, and achieves a measure of worldwide

agreement about scientific, educational and cultural development.

Since the realities of social, economic and political life that I have been referring to fall into a multitude of ideological and national configurations, and since, as we know, these configurations are grouped into supra-national regions and zones of conflict, what is remarkable is that an organisation like Unesco is able to function at all. Let us add to these difficulties the fact that it is staffed by a widely representative international Secretariat housed mainly in Paris, and that it has, over the years, had great difficulty in managing its own bureaucratic and decision making structures, not least those structures whereby the staff and the national delegations and representatives come together in mammoth conferences to agree upon programme plans and reconcile their many different and varied interests.

Unesco's Achievements

Some of these difficulties and problems are endemic in an organisation of Unesco's character, whilst others could doubtless be remedied through goodwill and more effective and efficient planning and management. Nonetheless, Unesco is a highly valuable organisation which has yielded many beneficial results to all of the countries participating in it. I say all, since it is sometimes assumed that Unesco is a sort of aid agency whose purpose and role is to channel funds provided by the wealthier western countries into the Third World. It is interesting to note that in the aftermath of Secretary of State Shultz's announcement of America's intention to withdraw, many of the most prestigious of America's scientific organisations and leading scientists publicly stated that only through the agency of an intergovernmental body like Unesco could some of the major programmes of interest to American scientists be pursued. These include the Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission, the Man in the Biosphere programme, and other international programmes in physics, neurology and environmental sciences.

There is widespread support for Unesco's pioneering work in the preservation of some of the world's great cultural monuments, such as the Nubian temples, the great Buddhist temple of Borobudur in Indonesia, and current plans for the restoration and development of the art and archaeology of

Istanbul. The World Heritage List, for which Unesco is responsible, includes items as diverse as the Australian Great Barrier Reef and the cathedral at Chartres. We in this country, with our tradition of environmental and cultural preservation have an interest in these programmes and contributions of many kinds to make to them.

Britain's Participation

On a more materialistic plane, there are quite definite economic benefits to Britain in her membership of Unesco. Ten percent of the professional consultants engaged on Unesco field projects this year come from Britain. Not only British expertise, but also British equipment is purchased by Unesco. In the three years 1981-3, Britain received nearly six hundred Unesco scholarship holders in many different fields. Britain also provides training of high level professionals under Unesco auspices. A thorough analysis would yield other benefits which need to be set against our financial contributions. As every politician, businessman and diplomat knows, the very tangible benefits arising from access to information, participation in collaborative projects, and being, as it were, a fully paid up member of the club, will often far outweigh the costs of membership.

I mention these points because participation in Unesco is not a straightforward matter, and is very properly seen, from the perspective of every country as a matter of self interest. In other words, alongside the idealistic and longer term values of international collaboration and co-operation with a view to world improvement, we must put the many advantages which both directly and indirectly accrue to Britain from Unesco membership.

The Challenges to Unesco

Why then, if there are these actual and potential advantages to membership, has the United States declared its intention to withdraw, and why have Great Britain, West Germany and the Netherlands formally intimated their dissatisfaction with the Organisation? My purpose is not to assess Unesco from the perspective of an American Administration in a Presidential election year. Nor do we need to go into the long and dubious history of isolationist and anti-internationalist movements which have been a feature of the American extreme right for many decades. But behind every overt

criticism we may expect to find a background of concern, perhaps with strong political and ideological overtones.

Specifically, the Americans have made three substantive criticisms: that Unesco —

- * has extraneously politicised virtually every subject it deals with
- * has exhibited a hostility towards the basic institutions of a free society, especially a free market and free press
- * has demonstrated unrestrained budgetary expansion.

We do not have space to consider these points in detail. Suffice to say that issues such as Israel's membership, the highly controversial proposal for a New World Information and Communication Order, the fondness of Unesco for operating through the public sector and pursuing collectivist policies, and the widely admitted bureaucratic excesses in Paris help to put the blunt American criticism in context.

Fortunately, the Americans have left themselves with some room for manoeuvre. In March, the United States and 23 other countries presented Mr M'Bow with a list of proposed changes in the Organisation, including downgrading of controversial projects and a change in the voting system to give more influence to countries which contribute the largest share of Unesco's budget. The Americans are expecting that Mr M'Bow will spearhead quite substantial administrative and organisational as well as budgetary changes. It is interesting to note that even the Soviet Union, which has harshly criticised the United States' intention to leave, and generally supports Mr M'Bow, has called for new budgetary policies. It is possible, therefore, that the American Administration may feel that enough change has been made or is in the pipeline to warrant a reversal of the announced withdrawal.

I am not alone in thinking that as a consequence of all this, the United Kingdom attitude to Unesco has assumed a much greater importance than it seemed to have when Timothy Raison sent his first critical letter on the 2nd April this year. "The U.K.", Mr Raison said, "remains firmly committed to the ideals and principles which are set forth in the Unesco constitution." He welcomed the growth in membership, and the consequent change of emphasis in programmes in favour of the develop-

ing countries. He outlined four criticisms:

- * unease about the political aspects of certain programmes
- * the use of Unesco forums for attacking values and ideals set out in the constitution
- * the growing size of the Unesco budget
- * the question as to whether many of Unesco's programmes represent good value for money.

He suggested that too high a proportion of expenditure is concentrated on headquarters programmes in Paris and far too little on effective action in the field. The possibility of withdrawal was explicitly mentioned and real improvement in Unesco operations was called for.

The timing of the letter and of the much more conciliatory second letter which was sent on 4th July put the British government in the position where it could, if it wished, announce its withdrawal in December of this year. A special meeting of the UK Commission for Unesco is to be held on October 24. The Minister intends to chair this

THE SOCIETY FOR EDUCATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION

The Society for Educational Reconstruction believes that education can be a powerful force for social change. Founded in 1969, it is an organisation committed to personal, political and social transformation through education.

The activities of the Society have included the organisation of a number of symposia, and the production of publications. The Theodore Brameld Symposium on Education and Social Change, held on 20th October 1984, was entitled **The Search for Humanistic Perspectives in a Technocratic Society**.

Dr T. M. Thomas is in the process of editing a new publication, **Images of an Emerging World: From a War System to Justice and Peace**.

The Society for Educational Reconstruction would like to encourage and build upon the interest of members of the W.E.F. and like-minded people.

For further details of all the activities of The Society for Educational Reconstruction please contact:

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meeting and to use its advice in determining the recommendations he will make to the Cabinet. Of course he is also receiving advice from his officials, and no doubt from many other sources as well.

The British, like the American, Dutch and West German criticisms have played an important part in producing from the Director-General of Unesco both a well reasoned defence of his Organisation, and a commitment to change and reform. This includes the establishment of five working parties whose activities and recommendations will of course play their part in improving the Organisation in the years ahead.

It can scarcely be expected that sweeping change will be achieved overnight. The challenge therefore to Unesco is to open itself to criticism, to establish effective procedures for monitoring and evaluating, not only its programme, but also its own structures and procedures, and to begin a serious rethink of its role and functions.

Unesco could gain by decentralising from Paris. A relatively small and efficient Secretariat in Paris could be the nucleus of a worldwide network including powerful regional centres. We have a very fine example of such a centre in the Bangkok

Regional Office for Asia and Oceania. From my personal experience of this office, and some of its programmes, I have concluded that part of the hope for Unesco lies in the creation of such structures within the regions where the problems and needs themselves arise.

Few people are likely to be persuaded by the argument of some American officials and politicians that Unesco is incapable of reform. This is a counsel of despair, and it fails to address the question of possible alternatives. Bilateral aid programs are not alternatives, but constitute another form of governmental and perhaps also private sector activity. I am sure that there are many people in different parts of the world who will welcome a lead from Britain in the review, reform and renewal of Unesco from within the organisation. The UK Government has put itself in a strong position to do this and we should all now do what we can to encourage and support Mr Raison in persuading the Cabinet of the wisdom of this approach during the two or three crucial months ahead of us. British withdrawal, on the other hand, could have very damaging effects and lead to other countries increasingly distancing themselves from Unesco.

Round the World

Frank Stone, President of WEF/USA reports:—

The theme of the World Education Fellowship, United States Section (WEF/USA) during the 1982-4 biennium has been *Education for World Peace*. Our 1982 spring conference was held at Boston, Massachusetts, with a WEF/USA day on early childhood education in cross-cultural arts and humanities was attended by some one hundred people. On November 12, 1982 WEF/USA joined several organisations in a conference on *Global Perspectives of Peace Education* at the University of Connecticut.

The spring 1983 conference took place at Berkshire Community College, Pittsfield, Massachusetts on *Fathers and Mothers of the Peace Movement*. The autumn 1983 WEF/USA activity was in Hartford, Connecticut. On April 14, 1984 the College of New Rochelle, New Rochelle, N.Y. hosted a WEF/USA conference on *Education for World Understanding in 1984 — A Report Card*.

Currently WEF/USA comprises of six chapters: Boston, Connecticut, Long Island, New York, Great Lakes (Detroit, Michigan), and Mundelin, Illinois.

Two overseas links of WEF/USA are now bearing fruit. One of these was the result of some ten mid-career

educators from *Nepal* who joined the Connecticut Chapter (WEFCONN) during their years as graduate students at The University of Connecticut. Now back in Kathmandu, they have formed a new *Nepal Section of WEF* and are meeting on a regular basis. During the past year the New York Chapter and WEF/USA each contributed \$500 to the *International University for Peace* in Costa Rica. We have been following the development of this institution and hope to help as its policies and curriculum are developed.

ST. CHRISTOPHER SCHOOL LETCHWORTH, UK

is an educational community of some 500 boys, girls and adults practising education on successful modern lines. The seven school houses provide living and teaching accommodation for children from 4 to 18. It is situated on the edge of the Garden City, amidst rural surroundings and beautiful gardens.

Self-government in schools

Charles Hannam

I remember the good old days when we really had discipline, the days when we had national health milk. I used to say 'with your right hand get hold of a bottle of milk, with your left hand press your hand on the milk bottle top, take it off with your left hand and pick up two straws. At the count of two put them into the bottle — suck — take a breath — suck — now that was discipline' . . . I looked at him and said 'You and I are using the word discipline in a different way. That's not discipline — discipline is when kids can go and do it for themselves. A two-year-old can drink milk without causing too much trouble.' (one of my students recalling her first year of teaching)¹

Self-government for children at school is like allowing them to feed themselves: it may be good for educational reasons but it can also be messy and slow. The argument between a young teacher and an old hand contains the controversies which still divide educationists. There is the wish to allow children to find out for themselves and the belief that the only learning which significantly influences behaviour is self-discovery. On the other side, there is an insistence on the need for security, structure and control. Each views the other with suspicion: labels like authoritarian or naive and starry eyed are applied in no time at all.

Pioneers in education have demanded often enough that children should be allowed to make experiments, take risks and thus be allowed to mature more easily. When school councils and some degree of self-determination by democratic vote have been instituted, there have been claims that the children and adolescents become more confident, gain a sense of communal responsibility and will have a much better understanding of the nature of politics. For some young people, power in the school can be as desirable as some of the other glittering prizes. If we want all pupils to succeed,

the school council may yet be another place where the 'loser' is condemned to obscurity and silence. Glory may come to the fluent and witty, humiliation to the slow but sincere; for them, the progressive experiment may look like another trap laid by well-meaning but impractical adults.

If administrative convenience comes first, democratic proceedings will not have a place. Superficially it may look as if time is going to be wasted on trivialities. Subterranean conflicts among pupils may come into the open; authority may be challenged and clear lines of demarcation between staff and children can become blurred.

Not one experiment in school democracy I know of has been an unqualified success. Like most enthusiasms in schools, they are short-lived but praised abundantly by those who introduced them; anyone who did not thrive in the new assemblies claims that this was yet another form of oppression. A. S. Neill saw his school council as an integral part of the school experience, but he quarreled magnificently with his pupils who went as far as suspending the council. He thought of the children as his equals, made few allowances to colleagues on his staff, but held on to the belief that every child in the community — however young — had the right to be heard and should take a part in making the rules which governed him.²

At Midhurst, I learned about democracy from Luke in the 1940's. For a time he allowed his boarders to run a school council, but his idealism ran up against the obstinate and devious wishes of his pupils who were determined to test his liberalism to the limit. In the end the enterprise was abandoned. It seems to me as if the one who had invented the 'game' nervously watches how it escapes his control and gathers a momentum of its own.³

Self-government for children has rarely had a good press: it was even associated with Bolshevism, anarchy and all sorts of sexual licence. In Russia after 1917 Makarenko indeed involved orphans of the Russian Civil Wars in making their own deci-

sions and devising their own rules. They were a desperate lot, had been running wild for years. Makarenko felt that he needed to carry a pistol in his belt and there was nothing gentle in his approach.⁴

After the 1914-18 War, experiments in education were eagerly sought by those who were disillusioned with the values of the past. Homer Lane had much influence until he was discredited by a not satisfactorily proved scandal. He had worked with delinquents in his Little Commonwealth in Dorset.⁵ He had a profound influence on J. H. Simpson, later Headmaster of Rendcombe: "I was told an interesting American called Lane was coming to talk about his work in some kind of reformatory. I went in and in some ways Lane's talk began a radical change in my whole outlook on education." By background James Herbert Simpson was certainly not a Bolshevik: educated at Rugby and Cambridge he began his teaching career at his old school, then went on to Greshams, Holt where he worked with a progressive headmaster, Howson. For the first time it became clear to him that one could escape from the constrictive methods of the traditional public schools.⁶

In 1908 when Simpson began his teaching career, it does sound as if there was a golden age — at any rate for the sons of the upper middle classes — "he knew that he and his colleagues were engaged in work which was wholeheartedly approved of by parents . . . It was work too, that was not, and as far as he could see never would be, at the mercy of current political or local opinion and influence."

Simpson had an opportunity to change schools when Rendcombe was founded with Wills tobacco money, and he was appointed the first headmaster. The intention in 1919 was to provide boarding school education for working class children, and there were also places for fee-paying middle-class boys. In the context of public school values of the time, this was a bold proposal. Locally, apparently, there was opposition, because a large house was no longer available to the Gloucestershire hunting community.⁷

Simpson hoped to produce a sane attitude to authority by introducing the boys to self-government. In his book *Schoolmaster's Harvest* he is honest about the difficulties: not all staff could usefully be members of the assembly, they too needed to be educated. He feared the boys might

become anxious when they witnessed strong disagreement among members of staff. Whoever innovates needs support but Simpson's own anxiety could not deter him from letting the boys have their way. He introduced another member of staff as his representative to the meeting but found that this separated staff from pupils. Something akin to a mutiny was experienced: one group of boys who had been defeated in a vote on the right to use a room in the school forcibly threw out the victors in the democratic contest. "I quelled the disturbance, using the ordinary authority of the master, which the boys obeyed immediately." It would be interesting to know what the participants in the 'mini riot' thought about it all. Perhaps they were delighted that 'sir' had reverted to his original role instead of making them anxious with his new-fangled ideas.

Despite occasional setbacks, Simpson claimed that he retained his belief in self-government; it gave, he wrote, invaluable training for the life of the active citizen. He thought that boys from the poorer sections of society were surprised to learn that law and authority belonged to them and was not just superimposed by an alien ruling class. I learnt from a conversation with a former Rendcombe pupil who is now a university lecturer, that Simpson's optimism was not entirely justified. One, who had been recruited from the 'deserving poor', did not feel that constitutional house-meetings compensated him for having become alienated from his own sort. Indeed much of what he said replicated the feelings of former independent school pupils interviewed by Jackson and Marsden.⁸ Simpson thought self-government required patience "not in the classroom sense, of which I never had much, but the patience which is prepared to let things go rather wrong time after time . . . there are times when it is better to be put *nearly* right by the boys than to be put wholly right by someone else . . ."⁹

One experiment recorded in detail since Simpson's time is Grainger's 'Bullring'.¹⁰ He describes free discussion sessions in a Leicestershire Comprehensive. The tasks of the pupils, as he puts it, was to study their behaviour as it occurred and the teachers' task was to help them to do this. One pupil described it: "you can say what you like and you can just about do what you like . . . the speaker and the person spoken to are alone, like the bull and the matador in the bullring." The assumptions

underlying this educational experiment were based on the work done by the Tavistock Institute for Human Relations, and like other pioneers, the author writes about the moral education of children, not by telling them what they ought to do, but by letting them get on with it and find out by themselves. Superficially there seemed to have been chaos and disorder, but understanding emerged out of it and some of the comments made, when evaluation was attempted, are telling:

"Myself I have learnt to express my own feelings and not to be scared to talk about them."

"We have learnt that teachers do not take it out of you when you make fun of them in another lesson."

'Scientific evaluation of the experiment was not possible nor perhaps necessary. Grainger touched on the problems inherent in running the experiment: there must be support at all levels, from the staff group to the director of education.

In recent years there has been considerable pressure to make education more rigid and formal. Success in examinations is more easily quantified than the emotional development of children. We can look at their environment¹¹ and deduce their chances of success or failure. But this information does not necessarily advance children's living conditions; it can equally be used to make schools more rigid. Days of absence can be counted as well as books borrowed from the library or 'O' level passes. The development of inner confidence or an understanding of how one behaves in a group is less easily taught or adequately measured.

It is known from the NFER research on mixed ability teaching¹² that a new approach will only work if all those who are involved believe in what they are doing, and the same can be said of experiments in self-government. School-council meetings can become threatening and noisy, and are unlikely to reassure those in authority who find their security in rules and regulations. Not surprisingly, these councils have not become widespread in a time of contraction, increasing pressures on teachers to conform and to return to 'basics'. There is a false nostalgia for a golden age of the grammar school when handwriting was good and standards high; the aridity and anti-intellectualism of traditional schooling must not be forgotten.

I would urge schools to consider self-government, because I am concerned that democracy should

flourish. We need the independence of spirit and confidence in young people which can be developed. A formal setting is not right for this sort of thing, and they should have the ability to take an active part in matters that concern them. How is this supposed to happen? By some infusion into their system? Lectures on citizenship or tours of the Houses of Parliament are only excuses for not allowing the actual experience of personal and political relationships.

E. M. Forster had it right when he advocated only 'Two Cheers for Democracy' but it would be a pity if the sense of excitement and adventure recorded in the experiments was ignored. There will hardly be a safe way to proceed; guide-lines and blue prints—even if provided by thoughtful management—will also be the end of spontaneity. What we need is some faith in the capacity of young people to take on more than they are usually allowed. Education is either for domestication or for freedom, and I want it to be a liberating force, rather than a preparation for sterile and bureaucratic organisations.¹³

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Records of achievement for school leavers

A Report on presentations to the 1984 WEF(GB) Conference.

by John Stephenson

This conference on Records of Achievement for School Leavers was held in the context of the draft policy statement "Records of Achievement for School Leavers" issued by the UK Department of Education and Science in November 1983. Several of the proposals in this statement on the reform of assessment procedures seem to give the opportunity to develop the school curriculum on the lines consistently advocated by the World Education Fellowship.¹

Dr James Hemming set the scene by summarizing the case against the existing curriculum as being over dominated by academic values, comparatively indifferent to aesthetic values, practical and social skills and personal qualities, too fragmented to foster a coherent view of the world, unfair to the individual, and inhibitive of personal motivation.²

By overemphasising the development of analytical skills and knowledge retention, the school curriculum starves the growth of the aesthetic, creative, and social intelligence systems, thus producing school leavers lacking balance in their total personality.

This is particularly significant in view of the clear preference being expressed by employers³ for people who are flexible, reliable, enthusiastic, collaborative, socially well adjusted, communicative, as well as generally and personally competent and independent.

To grow into socially competent and responsible adults, pupils must be given the opportunity to live within a community which is wholly civilized and civilizing, in decent relationships with one another and with purposes commonly shared and worked out. For many youngsters, school is the only place where this is likely to be provided, and its provision should be the first priority of its curriculum.

Because there is such a dominating, all pervading feedback from assessment systems onto prior educational activity, any proposal which opens up the opportunity of moving the basis of assessment away from narrow desocialising activities to descriptions

of the achievements of individuals as they actually are, should be exploited to the full.

*Tyrrell Burgess*⁴ reminded the Conference of the institutional framework within which the education system operates. The 1944 Education Act made it the duty of parents to educate their children and required the authorities to make provision to enable them to be educated according to their age, aptitude and ability and in accordance with the wishes of their parents. This basic structure, he argued, was entirely friendly towards our commitment to addressing the problems *Dr Hemming* had outlined, in that it allows — even requires — us to focus on how to enable all young people, in collaboration with their parents, to develop responsibility for their own learning.

By clearly putting the emphasis of assessment on the achievements of each and every school leaver, rather than on externally imposed syllabuses, we could begin to build a curriculum which starts with each individual pupil.

Two key difficulties seem to be in the way. First, how can we arrange the internal workings of our schools to enable it to happen. The normal secondary school day is divided into segments of 35 to 40 minutes with pupils frequently changing location and switching the focus of their attentions across widely differing activities. No other situation in life is so organised. Nothing could be less conducive to the development of individual specialisms and social responsibility. Radical changes in the assessment system would require equally radical changes to these daily routines, perhaps based on tutorials in which the academic, personal and social development of the pupil is the responsibility of one tutor, with blocked times when access to other specialist tutors might be negotiated. Failure to deal with this will mean no real change at all.

Second, how can we retain external and public credibility for a system dependent upon the initiative of the pupils and parents? In similar circumstances — though with a different age group — the

School for Independent Study at North East London Polytechnic managed to secure Council for National Academic Awards recognition for new kinds of programmes planned by the students themselves. Burgess and Adams are currently exploring the extent to which this experience is transferable to the secondary school.

Securing credit for the final achievement — i.e. the verification of each pupil's record of personal achievement — would be, as now, in the hands of the professional such as teachers in other schools, educational advisers and others. In time, a national accrediting network could be established to develop public confidence and to give nationwide currency to each award.

The Secretary of State's proposed Records of Achievement Scheme is entirely helpful to the achievement of such radical changes, especially as he is offering money to support pilot schemes. Burgess and Adams, in association with some local authorities are submitting plans for pilot schemes to begin as soon as possible.

The Conference did not ignore the many practical issues involved in the process of compiling records. Dr Patricia Broadfoot⁵ reviewed the state of the art. The French, for example, had tried to develop their own Records of Achievement twenty years ago but failed because it was imposed from above, did not have the understanding or support of the practitioners, and required a major effort from the staff. In contrast, initiatives in Victoria, Australia fared much better because they came from a widely felt dissatisfaction with the prevailing system of assessment and a shared commitment by teachers to do something decisive about it. In Scotland, where much work has been done since the early seventies, dilution of commitment was caused by the concurrent and distracting introduction of alternative external examination levels. The high attendance at the Conference, the groundswell of criticism of the current CGE and CSE exam systems⁶, and the seemingly spontaneous development of local and regional experimental schemes, all seemed to be suggesting that perhaps we might avoid the French experience if not quite emulate the Australian.

The British scene is rich in local and regional initiatives but is still low on serious evaluation. Key issues are:

- * who does the recording (ranging from pupils themselves to teachers to external assessors)

- * what is recorded (ranging from pupil's own preferences to predetermined lists of skills and qualities)
- * the purpose of the records (ranging from personal growth and development to employment selection).

Emphasis on the first characteristic in each continuum is more recent and more challenging, and is much more likely to lead to the kind of radical change sought in the nature of the educational experience than the second.

This is particularly important if we are to guard against the great danger of routinization leading to drudgery and eventual distortion of purpose. Teachers determined to change the system can identify with the first characteristics and can provide the spirit to inspire others and sustain them through inevitable operational difficulties.

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Music : the case for its inclusion in the curriculum

Claudia Clarke

'I come from a family of healers. You have separated music from the rest of the culture. That cannot be done.' Ghanaian member of audience, talking to Western ethnomusicologist at the World Music Village, London, September 1983.

Music in Societies

Hearing is the primary sense. This is now known to be true since Dr Marie Clements has recorded the sounds which the baby hears while it is still in its mother's womb — sounds which she has used in her medical work. There must be few societies, primitive or sophisticated, whose people are unaware of the close connection between sound and the emotions, and who have not used this link, often in association with rhythmic gesture, in their rituals and ceremonies. People sing, dance, or play musical instruments, either alone or in groups to express their feelings, or to entertain themselves. Sounds and gestures, whether formalised into dance structures or not, are one of the most natural and basic forms of human expression.

In non-literate societies a good aural memory has clearly been essential for the preservation of the culture. In some societies there was a class or caste whose function was to memorise, preserve and hand on to the next generation the stories which recorded the history of the people and especially of its rulers.¹ Rhythmic sound is a great aid to memory. Music played a large part in this type of culture. In contemporary Western societies, protest songs are sung by groups who reject the values and assumptions of the 'establishment' and who seek to change these values. This is only one example of the many different social functions which music has served in addition to the one most commonly acknowledged in our contemporary Western culture, namely entertainment and recreation.

If music is to communicate some meaning there must be a consensus between the person producing the sounds and the people hearing them, about the

nature and meaning of the sounds. Response to music is, in other words, a learned response. Pleasure in music comes from an understanding of its meaning. What is considered beautiful and significant varies as much according to place and time as do different fashions in dress. For instance, the elaborate harmonies of Western classical music would be incomprehensible to the average Asian musician, and vice versa. To learn to appreciate and understand an unfamiliar style demands a considerable effort of imagination as well as exposure to that style. If sound is associated with visual images, with words in a known language, or with both, this effort of imagination is less difficult, a fact which is important in music education.

Music in the Curriculum

There is an urgent need for debate between musicians, head teachers, administrators and curriculum planners on the philosophy and rationale of music within the school curriculum, if it is not to be squeezed out altogether, with the consequent impoverishment of the school community, in so many ways.²

My argument is for keeping music in a close relationship to other areas of the curriculum, for all pupils.

Access to and Appreciation of World Cultures

In the contemporary world of instant transmission by satellite of TV pictures, a music course should give an introduction to some of the many different world musics, using these as a way into the study of different cultural patterns. As we have seen in Britain, especially since the Beatles of the 1960's, young people use the kind of music they enjoy, just like the kind of dress they wear, as a means of identifying other members of the group to which they belong. They tend to be intolerant of other music. One of the most difficult tasks for teachers involved with music and adolescents is to help to

overcome this intolerance and to have a respect for tastes and opinions which differ from their own.

To design a music curriculum for a school with pupils with a wide range of musical aptitudes is difficult enough. Where many different cultural and linguistic traditions are represented among its students the difficulty is immeasurably greater, if the content is to be meaningful for all students and is not to be rejected by significant numbers of them. If we accept one function of the school to be fostering mutual respect among its students, establishing parity of esteem between the different cultures is an important curriculum aim for music.

Practical Work in Music

Almost all children enjoy some practical work in music, whatever their natural level of musical ability. A teacher who is a skilful musician can cater for all levels of ability in the same class, but only up to a point. The class should not be too large and plenty of *good equipment* is essential; so that the groups do not disturb each other. Adequate *storage space* should be at hand and the teacher should always be based in the same room or suite of rooms. For decades those responsible for planning school buildings in Great Britain have provided specialist rooms and equipment on the necessary scale for science, gymnastics and art. Yet in many schools provision for music has lagged behind that for other subjects and the need for laboratory facilities similar to those for science has not been recognised.³

If these conditions apply, good quality work in *group improvisation* is possible, though some highly gifted and dedicated teachers do achieve this in less suitable working conditions.⁴

Composition is only one aspect of music. The wish to *play an instrument* may show itself at a very early age, and a high degree of skill may be reached by quite young children, under an inspiring teacher and with parental encouragement. The most frustrating thing for these children is to be held back musically and forced to waste time in general class music lessons where the work is much too easy for them, just because the structure of the school is geared to children of the same age being taught in the same class.

The ideal in every school which has a music specialist on its staff is at least one, if not two, periods a week where children of *different ages but*

similar levels of musical ability can work together as a group. The teacher of such a group should be an instrumentalist, with a knowledge of technical problems and how to tackle these, if the work is orchestral or band, and he should be a singer if the work is choral.

This work should not be treated as an extra-curricular activity, as it almost always is in state-provided schools in Great Britain; it should be an integral part of the curriculum. However, musically talented children should not be allowed to opt out of the kind of general music lesson I have described above. They should attend these and work alongside other children who are less committed to the hours of private study essential for success in playing. If the work is carefully planned, the able musicians can act as leaders with the other children singing or playing much simpler parts. This sort of arrangement applies in a number of different musical styles in different parts of the world.⁵ For instance, some parts in the Indonesian gamelan are easier than others; the percussion player in a steel-band has an easier part than that of the children playing the pans.

A Proposed Structure

The ideal structure for a music curriculum which is meaningful for all pupils would then be: two specific music lessons of 45 minutes a week, one with a group of comparable musical ability and attainment, regardless of age of pupils, and one with a group of musically mixed ability to avoid the possibility of the musically 'talented' regarding themselves and being regarded by other pupils and staff as an 'elite'.

The type of course which focuses on different world music would be a part of an integrated studies course, in which music is used in a functional way, as it is in many societies, from the contemporary adolescent subcultures to those societies in Africa or Oceania whose musical traditions are studied by Western ethnomusicologists.

Practical Constraints

The situation in so many schools is different from the ideal I have described, for a variety of reasons. Most music departments, for instance, are understaffed. Ideally a large comprehensive school should have four teachers of music and include a composer, a singer and an instrumentalist among these.

Fewer and fewer primary schools now have a

specialist music teacher, or even a competent musician on the staff. So, at the age of about 6 - 9 years, when children find memorising easy and they are most receptive to work which develops their aural memories, the school is not able to provide the contact with an adult who can help them to develop these. A few children do have this contact, if they are lucky enough to be in a primary school where music plays an important part in the curriculum and pupils have a sense of achievement in music.⁶

So the secondary school music teacher has to face an even worse problem, and an even greater diversity of musical attainment among the pupils. It is all but impossible, even for a skilful teacher, to devise a meaningful music curriculum for all students, if they are forced into a timetable with one music lesson of 1½ hours per week, in a group of 25 children put together without any regard for their musical attainment. No wonder so many teachers qualified to teach music end up teaching something else or leave the profession, and so many children regard the class music lesson as 'useless and boring'.⁷ Better not to have it at all, in such circumstances, and to relegate it to the 'musical elite' if that is all the school can provide for. But to do this would be to sell the majority of children very short, and a school which finds itself in this position should not regard itself as comprehensive, in the true sense of that word.

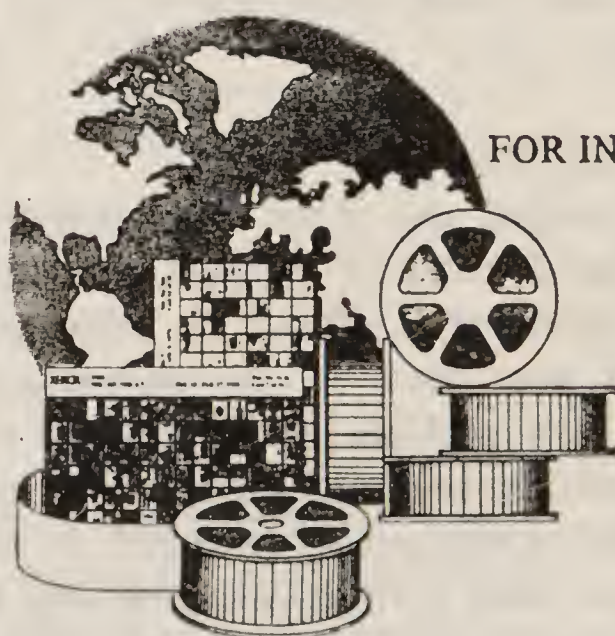
New Developments — New Curwen Method

Fortunately there is a way of teaching music to larger groups which is accessible to any teacher who can distinguish one note from another and who is prepared to overcome his/her shyness of singing in front of a class. It needs no expensive equipment, simply a certain commitment on the part of the teacher, who need not necessarily have any instrumental skills. I refer to the method developed by John Curwen, the great English popular music educator of the last century, by whose method the members of the huge choral societies which were a feature of Victorian musical life in Wales and the north of England learnt to sightsing.⁸ It fell into disrepute in the middle years of this century. In the 1970's a research project was set up and the Curwen Institute formed to update the method, in the light of contemporary needs.⁹

The method is essentially a way of training aural memory in accurate recall, by means of associating

a sound, a syllable and a gesture. As such it is in line with traditional methods of learning music in both Africa and India. Music educators with long experience of working with young children consider that a child is ready to begin using the method as soon as he/she has 'found his singing voice' and has a repertoire of songs to which he/she can relate the 'solfa' work. Any songs may be used so long as the teacher has understood the sequence of the musical patterns which are being assimilated by the student, and has chosen songs which contain the appropriate pattern. Material from many different cultures and with words in different languages could easily be used, as the method is most flexible. If pursued consistently throughout primary schools, large numbers of 11 year olds would, by the time they enter secondary school, reach a standard of musical competence to enable them to undertake musical activities appropriate to their age and interests. At present, a substantial number of 11 year olds enter secondary school with a musical

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age of about 6, and secondary music teachers are forced back onto material which appears childish to their pupils.

Helping children to make a pleasant sound with their voices need not be a frustrating experience (even for boys whose voices are changing), if the teacher understands the basics of singing, and is able to give a clear pattern for the pupils to copy. If he/she sings with a natural, unforced voice, sometimes to the children, sometimes with them, the class should develop confidence and gradually extend its vocal range. In the north London borough where I have worked with music in the education service for a number of years, there is a 'social priority' junior school where the standard of singing is much higher than it is in some schools in the so-called 'middle class' area; the teacher is a keen choral singer herself, though her piano playing is of an elementary standard.

This New Curwen Method is much simpler than the Kodaly method — another adaptation of the Curwen method. The first computer programmes to go with the New Curwen Method have been produced.¹⁰ They provide opportunities for individual practice by both teachers and children, working at their own speed, with a built-in provision for self-assessment in the programme. I hope that these and the method will be widely used, so that the adolescents, when they come to work with synthesisers and other more sophisticated equipment may have a more extended musical vocabulary than the one or two chords which are all many of them often know.

Microcomputers and Music

Work on the practical uses of the micro-computer in music education is currently going on in many parts of Great Britain and software is being produced. It is still very much in the experimental stage and there is a problem of notation, if the conventional typewriter keyboard for the computer is used. The two programmes described in the previous paragraph have tried to overcome this by sticking the musical symbols on to the relevant typewriter keys, so there is a direct link between the sound and the symbol, both musical and visual. As the new Midi technology becomes more widespread and cheaper, and a synthesiser keyboard can easily be linked to a computer, a whole new field should be opened up to music educators. Many

young people are interested in synthesisers and these are now so widely used in so many different kinds of music that their use in the classroom can well stimulate interest among students who would be unresponsive to more traditional forms of music lessons."

The success of such courses, however, surely depends on the knowledge and skills of the teacher(s) and musicians who plan them; also on the availability of a large enough amount of expensive equipment for viable numbers of pupils to participate in this kind of work. One can only hope that *music may help to bridge the gap between the arts and the sciences*; and that the necessary technical resources may be seen by school governors and head teachers as relevant to both faculties.

Conclusion

The neglect of music in the curriculum in contemporary Britain, even a deliberate downgrading of it in some schools, would matter less if the world outside the school were not so full of musical sounds. These cannot be avoided; they are on TV, at the airport or railway station, in the coach or supermarket, as well as the cafe and the restaurant. Music is a nuisance to administrators. It does not fit tidily into a timetable geared to a year system, a building with no attempt at soundproofing, or an institution which only sees it as a means of contributing to school shows and speech days. But it plays an enormous part in the lives of adolescents outside the school, and this institution, if it has any justification at all, should exist to serve the needs of all its members. Music should be a part of its normal curriculum, a part of life, as it is in the African society quoted above, not something separate, to be left to a specialist elite.

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- 1 For example, i) the Griots of the Western Sudan. (Chernoff: *African Rhythm and African Sensibility*. Chicago U.P. 1979 p.71) and ii) the musicians among the tribal peoples of Rajasthan, India whose work is carefully documented by Komal Kothari and Western researchers who have been able to draw on the large collection of source material at his institute.
- 2 The Association for the Advancement of Teacher Education in Music was formed at a conference at Worcester, UK in April 1984. The conference was reported in *Classical Music Fortnightly* (May 19, 1984) and BBC Radio 4, June 9, 1984 (*What hope for the Young Musician: an investigation into the provision of music for schoolchildren*). These both exemplify the concern which is felt about the present position of music in schools in Great Britain.
- 3 In a large new London comprehensive school, built in the mid 1950's, 4 specialist art rooms were provided, but only one music room. The staffing provision for music was 4 teachers, but only 3 could be recruited; even so, much of the music teaching had to take place in the main teaching block, with no specialist facilities for the music staff, who were perpetually told by other staff that music lessons were disturbing their lessons. *Space for Music*, published by the Music Advisers National Association in 1976, gives model designs for music accommodation in schools and shows how these can comply with the building requirements laid down by the Department of Education and Science.
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- 10 Hal Dial: *Solfa and Rhythms*, Heads House, Watery Gate Lane, Great Eccleston, Lancs., UK, on cassette and also available on floppy disc.
- 11 Computer references:
 - i) I. Ritchie: *The BBC Micro Music Master Class*, Pan Books, 1984.
 - ii) University of Lancaster. Centre for Research into the Applications of Computers to Music. Music Department, Bailrigg, Lancaster LA1 4YW. This centre is developing a music keyboard for use with the BBC Micro.
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Acknowledgement

I would like to thank Dr Iona Mayer for much valuable advice on the content and presentation of this article, as it is relevant to her discipline, anthropology.

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Forthcoming conferences and lectures

The Core Curriculum — Threat or Promise to a Global Perspective?

Annual Conference of Standing Conference on Education for International Understanding (SCEIU). On: November 17. At: London House London WC1. Details: Richard Tames, SOAS, London University, Malet Street, London WC1E 7HP. Phone (01) 637 2388.

The Experience of Learning

Joint National Course/Conference. On: 12-14 April, 1985. At: University of Loughborough. Details: John Isaac, Dept of Education, Oxford Polytechnic, Oxford, UK. Phone 086 77 2691.

The U.S. community college and international education : a developing relationship

Maxwell C. King and Seymour H. Fersh

The U.S. community college, in the past forty years, has become one of the most familiar parts of the U.S. postsecondary educational system. Today, more than 1,250 such institutions enrol more than five million students in credit courses and an additional four million in non-credit courses. Sixty percent of all students pursuing postsecondary education today began this experience in community colleges or vocational/technical institutes.

The community college is constantly evolving — more so than any other American educational institution. Our colleges were purposely created in response to new conditions — the community college was initially designed to serve its community and to be served by it. But the definition of “community” is changing. Increasingly, especially in the past five years, many community colleges have broadened the definition of “community” to include the world community.

This wider perception of community was motivated in part by such developments as: the local community has become more internationalized by the increased numbers of immigrants, foreign tourists, and multinational corporations; more foreign students have attended the community college; and increasing numbers of community colleges have revised their curricula to include more studies and activities with international dimensions.

Examples from Brevard Community College, Florida

At Brevard Community College, we define international education in its broadest sense as referring generally to all programs, projects, studies, and activities which help an individual to learn and care more about the world beyond his or her community, and to transcend his or her culture-conditioned ethnocentric perspectives, perceptions, and behaviour. International education should not only increase one's knowledge; it should also enhance one's wisdom and affinity with humanity. In our definition, the “international” in international edu-

cation is not limited to “between nations”; it also includes transnational and transcultural education.

The implementation of international education at Brevard has moved rapidly because the administration and faculty have the support of the Board of Trustees and the local community is greatly affected by international tourism and commerce; Brevard County is also the home of the Kennedy Space Center. Even so, there is still some residual feeling that interantional education is not an appropriate field of action for community colleges. A community college in northern Florida, for example, was recently criticized by its local newspaper for its international education programs because, in the editorial words of the newspaper, “the primary purpose of the community college should be to provide vocational training and the first two years of college to a limited group of people who are county residents.” The president of that college was admonished for his leadership in international education and told that there are “lots of ways to stay in town and stay busy.”

At Brevard, we have explained and defended the extension of international education as being in the interest of our college, community, and nation as well as the world generally. In Florida international commerce is the fastest growing sector of the state's economy. Total international trade in 1982 was 8.5 times what it was ten years ago with the numbers of international tourists (now 6,000 daily) anticipated to triple in the next 15 years. Similarly, an economic argument in favour of enrolling foreign students is impressive: Brevard's enrollments have been estimated to add almost four million dollars annually to the county's income. Although our educational philosophy and policies are not narrowly concerned with economic values only, such monetary benefits can serve as a strong basis for obtaining community support.

We have been implementing international education throughout our college by (1) a structured

process for the involvement of the community and the college; (2) study-abroad programs; (3) internationalizing the curriculum; (4) proper and effective programming of international students on campus; (5) programs of an international/intercultural nature for the community; (6) student, faculty, and staff exchange programs; (7) consultant and support services with foreign institutions; and (8) staff and program development activities.

Each year Brevard enrolls about 300 of its own students in summer abroad programs, enrolls annually an equal number of foreign students from about 55 countries, and has provided about 125 professional, international assignments for about 80 of its faculty members.

Consortia Among Community Colleges

A number of consortia of community colleges have developed, with leadership from a variety of sources. The largest membership (about 50 community colleges) belongs to the International/Intercultural Consortium of the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges (AACJC).

In 1976, Brevard provided the lead in organizing the Community Colleges for International Development Consortium (CCID) which now has a membership of nine colleges.

From its inception, CCID has been concerned with developing international projects to assist others and also to help encourage faculty and curriculum development in its own membership.

The CCID colleges provide training and technical assistance through a variety of means. Interested countries can request on-site technical assistance or visits to one or more of the CCID colleges. Long-term (generally six months or longer) and short-cycle training programs are conducted abroad or in the United States. All technical assistance and training programs are designed to meet the expressed needs and goals of the requestor. Drawing upon instructional expertise, CCID provides consultant services in such areas as curriculum planning, development, and evaluation; faculty and staff development; instructional design and evaluation, educational planning; management training, designing physical facilities; and identifying, procuring and utilizing instructional equipment.

Faculty Development, General Education, and International Education

Within its own curriculum and its membership

in CCID, a central objective of Brevard Community College has been to *strengthen the international education dimension of general education*. Faculty development is, of course, directly related to curriculum development. Some would say that the faculty is the curriculum. In our approach to general education, the faculty is especially crucial because we have not chosen to achieve our purposes by requiring specific content-centered courses. Rather, we are affecting the curriculum (especially in the non-social studies courses) by increasing the number of faculty members who benefit from meaningful transcultural study and experiences. We do not require that faculty leaders of students' study programs abroad be experts in the areas to be visited; we do require that they be well aware of our educational purposes for such programs.

General education increasingly will have to include an awareness that one's behaviour is personal rather than universal and that the process of learning is more essential than mastery of content. General education must be concerned with the affective as well as the cognitive. Content-centred learning has relied heavily on accuracy and literalness at the expense of style and persuasive power; it increases "knowledge" of many things but not often at the level of feeling, the level that excites one and makes one care. Learning should not, of course, exclude cognitive understanding but it can and should communicate on levels other than the strictly intellectual.

We will need (and should be glad) to become our own teachers in a world where one can continue the process of self-educating. No content can serve this purpose better than cultural encounters. The discovery of "self" is also the discovery of "other"; without the combination, training is possible but not self-educating. We will need to develop the capacity to learn from the world as well as about it. The contribution that learning about other peoples and cultures can make will be revealed not only by our increased knowledge and awareness of them, but also by our complementary insights into ourselves and all humankind. We will not only know but we will also perceive, feel, appreciate, and realize. Through involvement and purposeful study, we can be helped to develop desirable qualities of empathy, self-development, humility, respect, gratitude, honour, puzzlement, and an overall sense of what it is to be human.

Challenges and Responses for Internationalizing the Community College

Until a few years ago, the U.S. community college was neither well-known nor much respected abroad. Conditions have changed, and foreign government officials and educators now visit community college campuses to learn about their experience of training and educating workers in new kinds of non-traditional occupations — especially those related to technology and those involving community participation in educational cooperation.

In 1981, the number of foreign students enrolled in community colleges increased by 34 percent. Currently, community colleges enrol about 45,000 foreign students — about a sixth of the total number in U.S. colleges and universities. Many factors contribute to this growth in community college enrolments: lower tuition fees, less stringent admission requirements, wider geographic availability, smaller class size, and more individualized instruction and counseling. Because few community colleges have on-campus housing, foreign students live in and participate in the life of the host community.

Ernest Boyer, U.S. Commissioner of Education at the 1978 AACJC annual conference, urged the community colleges "to lead the way in rebuilding our commitment to international education . . . community colleges can and must take the initiative on this crucial agenda." A long serving President of the AACJC, Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr., wrote in the same year: "If people in this nation are confronted with issues that transcend international boundaries and if education has responsibility in qualifying them to deal with these issues, then the community college, beyond any other postsecondary institutions, requires an international dimension."

The Community College and the World Community

Thus far, we have been considering the broadening, dynamic relationship between the U.S. community college and the world. But we must also have an enhanced sense of purpose. Never before have we had such an opportunity to know so much about the world we inhabit — its people, its natural and technological resources, its human potential.

To change and add to our perspectives is not as difficult as it may first seem. The ways in which we view the world are, after all, the results of education, formal and informal. Humans are not born with perceptions; we learn them. And we can un-

learn them as well.

The progress of humanity can move in two opposite (but not opposing!) directions towards a self-culture of more individualized choices but within an identification of membership in the total human society.

We must begin immediately to restructure our perspectives. It need not be an "agonizing reappraisal," but a joyful one. Fortunately, our world is rich in talents and materials. We need to affirm our confidence that we can beneficially participate in shaping our own futures.

The question is no longer *whether* the community college should become involved in international education, but to what extent, in what ways, and for what purposes. We must recognize that we live increasingly in a global environment for the products and services we exchange, the energy and air upon which we depend, and the very survival and well-being of our world community. International education in the community college is no longer optional; it must become an integral part of what we are and are becoming.

For further information:

- 1 From Office of the President of Brevard Community College, Cocoa, Florida 32922, USA.
 - * M. C. King & S. Ferish: *International Education and the US Community College: From Optional to Integral*, ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges, 1983; and
 - * M. C. King and S. Ferish: *General Education Through International / Intercultural Dimensions*, Jossey-Bass, 1982.
 - * Publications on the Community Colleges for International Development Inc. consortium.
- 2 The American Association of Community and Junior Colleges (AACJC):
 - * *Community and Junior College Journal*.
 - * AACJC International / Intercultural Consortium (IIC) monthly newsletter. Contact: James Mahoney, International Services, AACJC, One Dupont Circle, N.W. Washington, D.C. 20036.
- 3 ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center) Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges (8118 Math-Sciences Building, University of California, Los Angeles, California 90024, USA). Quarterly Bulletin, free.

Maxwell C. King and Seymour H. Ferish are on the staff of Brevard Community College, Florida, USA.

Kathleen Hickey — an appreciation

Sue Briggs and Elizabeth Adams

A long-standing member of the WEF, Kathleen Hickey, who died in April this year, will be remembered far and wide as a successful pioneer in the teaching of dyslexics. In her publication, *Dyslexia: A Language Training Course for Teachers and Learners* (Better Books, Bath, UK) she showed herself to be an invaluable authority on the structured teaching approach to multi sensory learning. Her teaching kit provides vital material for those with specific learning difficulties regarding reading, writing and spelling.

Kathleen was introduced to the WEF by Alice Martin and Hannah Berry when they were all concerned with Emergency Teacher Training. Despite her serious physical handicaps, Kathleen was given her first appointment by Surrey local education authority to a special school in Kingston. There she taught Cerebral Palsied children and worked with the Surrey Education Research Association to produce a record form for such pupils.

Her next position was as a teacher-in-charge of the Clayhill Centre attended by children with reading problems. Here her habits of academic study and of keeping records of individual pupils, brought her to a recognition of the specific dyslexic problems encountered by some otherwise able pupils.

A turning point came in 1969 when she obtained leave of absence to study in the Language Unit of the Scottish Rite Hospital in Dallas, Texas. As a qualified language therapist Kathleen returned several times to this centre. Its main contribution to her thinking was in the study of dyslexia as a neurological disability. She came to realise that in dyslexics there is a lack of harmonious development in the areas of the brain receiving information and making associations: and because of weakness in their ability to recall, these children learn best through a multi-sensory approach.

While in charge at Clayhill, Kathleen was already critical of the system of withdrawing children, on which the Centre was based. In 1971 she wrote that nearly all children could be accommodated in the normal school curriculum if the teachers were adequately prepared.

When Kathleen retired in 1973, she became the first Director of Studies at the newly formed Dyslexia Institute set up by the North Surrey Dyslexia Association in Staines, Middlesex.

Kathleen was a perfectionist with little patience for teachers who did not take the time or trouble to study how to teach in a systematic way. Her book requires careful attention as everything is set out in very great detail, with cross references and extensive word lists. Her multi-sensory techniques, though inspired by Gillingham-Stillman, are different in that they are child-directed, rather than teacher-directed. An essential ingredient in multi-sensory teaching must be learning by seeing, hearing, speaking and writing — simultaneously. The child is taught and taken step by step, letter by letter, through the alphabetic phonic training to gain confidence in his use of the 85% of the phonically structured English language. At the same time he is gradually taught the 15% of the irregular language. He is only presented with work that he has studied and for which he has been prepared. On this solid and simple foundation confidence grows as he learns that this way he is not going to be tricked or presented with words that he cannot cope with.

Miss Hickey's retirement was only the beginning of her seminal work. She devoted her time to teaching children and parents, conducting courses and travelling to all parts of the British Isles. She answered enquiries from all over the world and invited anyone who wished to discuss her work to her house.

Even children recognised that Kathleen knew what she was talking about when she said they had to work to overcome handicaps. And the WEF recognised it also when in 1981 it nominated her as its official representative for the International Year of Disabled Persons.

Not only did Kathleen overcome her own disadvantages but attained a stature enabling her to help great numbers of other people with less obvious handicaps — to an extent that few highly qualified graduates can claim.

The culture conflict paradigm and language diversity : a review

James A. Banks

A. J. Cropley, *The Education of Immigrant Children*. London, Croom Helm, 1983, 206 pages.

M. Craft and M. Atkins, *Training Teachers of Ethnic Minority Community Languages*. Nottingham, School of Education, University of Nottingham, 1983, 66 pages.

The ethnic revival movements which arose in Western democratic nations such as the United States, Canada, Australia, and the United Kingdom in the 1960s and 1970s dramatized the educational problems of ethnic and immigrant groups. Despite the rash of official reports, studies and other publications which have dealt with ethnic education within these nations, policies and strategies for the education of ethnic groups are controversial in each of the Western democracies. This is because the problems of educating ethnic groups are immensely complex and difficult to solve. Race and ethnicity also tend to evoke strong emotions and acid controversy that frequently confuse rather than clarify issues. The book and monograph reviewed in this essay are designed to provide educators with insights and understandings that will enable them to help minority youths to achieve better academically and to experience more emotional growth in school.

Professor Cropley presents a psychological interpretation of the problems of immigrant youths and describes some guidelines which he believes will help schools to reduce the problems of immigrant youths and contribute to their psychological and academic growth. The thesis of his book is straightforward and has existed in the psychological and sociological literature since the 1950s when Robert E. Park did his pioneering work on American ethnic groups at the University of Chicago. Cropley argues that the problems that immigrant groups experience in British schools and society (he focuses on West Indian and Pakistani youths) result from the conflicting norms, values, beliefs, and behaviours extant in their primordial (ethnic) societies and in British

society. Groups in each of these two worlds believe that their values and norms are valid and that the values, behaviours, and norms in other cultures are invalid and strange if not exotic.

Immigrant individuals experience psychologically destructive conflicts when they function in these two worlds. Because the host society depreciates the culture of immigrant children, they experience, argues Cropley, cultural shock, alienation, and identity conflicts. Cropley maintains that ethnic youths become marginal individuals who are not fully members of either their primordial or host societies. Consequently, they experience a range of problems, including higher rates of mental illness, academic failure, and higher crime rates. After describing and documenting the problems of immigrant youths, drawing upon both the theoretical and empirical literature, Cropley makes recommendations for schools that he believes, if implemented, will help immigrant children to reduce their psychological problems and become more productive members of British society. Before discussing Cropley's recommendations for schools, I will examine the adequacy of the cultural conflict paradigm that he uses to explain the problems and experiences of immigrants. Cropley does an excellent job in presenting and describing the cultural conflict hypothesis and marshalling data to support it.

There is no doubt that the conflicts between their primordial cultures and the cultures of their host societies is the root cause of some of the most difficult problems that ethnic and immigrant groups experience in any society. Many problems that ethnic groups experience in the classroom result from the conflicting perspectives and values that ethnic youths and their teachers bring to the classroom.

Yet, despite its strengths, the "cultural conflict" explanation cannot sufficiently explain all of the problems that ethnic youths experience in school and society. Racism, social class stratification, the distribution of power within a society, as well as

other variables, must be used within a comprehensive explanation of the problems of immigrants in Britain as well as in any other society. Blacks in the United States who speak standard English and who are highly educated and culturally assimilated are often denied structural inclusion in the dominant society not because they are culturally different or have conflicting values but because their skin colour is Black.

There are other problems with the cultural conflict hypothesis. Unfortunately, it presents a rather pathological view of immigrant cultures that reflects a cultural deficit perspective. By viewing the cultures of immigrant groups as "problems," a partial and distorted view of immigrant life and culture emerges. Conflicts caused by functioning in two cultures is neither the totality nor the essence of immigrant life and traditions. While cultural conflict is one important aspect of immigrant life, individuals within these cultures also have strengths, pain, joy, fortitude, and the total range of human qualities found in any society. By adhering only to the cultural conflict hypothesis, Cropley consequently presents a partial and misleading view of immigrant life and culture. His book presents a "thin" rather than the "thick" kind of cultural description that Clifford Geertz has conceptualized and popularized.

Another difficulty with the cultural conflict hypothesis is that it assumes that both the immigrant and host societies remain rather static. It does not acknowledge that the immigrant society impacts upon the host society and vice versa. When this kind of acculturation takes place, cultural conflict is mitigated and new societal structures and patterns emerge. These new social structures are products of the immigrant and host societies. They constitute a third culture in which acculturated members of ethnic groups experience few cultural conflicts. Middle-class Black, Japanese and Jewish culture in the United States are examples of these kinds of new cultural forms and patterns. They are different from both the primordial cultures of the ethnic groups and from the United States mainstream society.

The cultural conflict paradigm neither acknowledges nor explains the enormous cultural conflict that mainstream British individuals experience. It implies that only immigrants experience cultural conflict. Yet, all individuals within modernized Western societies experience what Alvin Toffler

calls "future shock" because of the tremendous and rapid changes in values and behaviours that are taking place in post-industrial nation-states. Mainstream British and American youths often experience cultural conflict when they try to function in their family and peer worlds.

Professor Cropley describes the cultural conflict paradigm insightfully and in lucid English. However, this explanation has inherent limitations that must be acknowledged and corrected before a comprehensive theory of the problems that immigrant students experience in school and society can be formulated. When used with other explanations, paradigms, and perspectives, this book will contribute to a scholarly study of ethnic group life and culture. It presents one important perspective on the ethnic experience.

In the final part of the book, Professor Cropley formulates guidelines for educational reform which he derives from the cultural conflict paradigm. He correctly states that the school often exacerbates rather than helps to reduce the cultural conflicts experienced by ethnic youths. The author believes that a major goal of schooling should be to help immigrant youths acquire the skills, attitudes, values, and abilities needed to function adequately in British society. However, he feels that they should be taught these skills, values and attitudes within a context which respects their languages and cultures. The curriculum should include content from the cultures of immigrant students. Cropley would favour, for example, immigrants being taught in their mother tongue when they first come to school. However, he does not feel that this practice would be accepted in British society.

While the author favours a multicultural curriculum and making use of the mother tongue language in instruction, his goal for the immigrants is assimilation into British society. However, he rejects extreme assimilation and states that some accommodation must be made by the host society. The accommodations that he believes that the host society should make, as accurately as I could determine, are primarily in the area of attitudes and perceptions. He believes that the school should take steps to eliminate stereotypic conceptions of immigrant groups and practice non-discrimination.

However, Professor Cropley does not believe that strong doses of ethnic pluralism will help either immigrant youths or British society. He also has

little faith in language pluralism and describes the difficulties caused by two official languages in Canada. Cropley strongly criticizes what he calls "exaggerated ethnicity," and believes that it "can have effects similar to those seen in racism." (p.110). Cropley is accurate when he argues that immigrant youth must learn standard English and attain the skills and attitudes needed to participate in British society in order to attain structural inclusion and equality. However, he seems to accept the major assumptions and goals of British society without question and to advocate the assimilation of immigrant children without rethinking the goals and assumptions of the society into which they are assimilating.

Ethnic languages, values and lifestyles can benefit Western societies and provide them with alternative perspectives and points of view. Highly modernized societies such as the United Kingdom and the United States often have little sense of community and other values and behaviours that are often confined to primordial ethnic communities. When educational policies related to ethnic groups are conceptualized, we will derive the most promising approaches when we consider what immigrant and host cultures can give to each other. Otherwise, societies might lose the multicultural advantage and enrichment which immigrant and ethnic groups make possible.

In their monograph prepared for the Swann Committee, Professor Craft and Dr Atkins report the results of a survey designed to determine the "existing and latent capacity of initial teacher training institutions for preparing their students for teaching ethnic minority community languages." (p.1) The investigators developed a semi-structured questionnaire that was sent to 118 institutions in England and Wales that offered a post-graduate or a *BEd* course in teacher education. The questionnaire data was enhanced in two ways: (1) five institutions that had developed offerings in minority community languages were visited; and (2) a seminar was held in which specialists presented their views on "incorporating community languages into the initial and in-service education of teachers." (p.5)

The investigators candidly discuss the threats to reliability in the study. The short time in which they had to complete the study precluded elaborate piloting of questionnaire items and resulted in many

responses that had little detail. The investigators also note that the responses within an institution varied according to the identity of the individual who completed the questionnaire and that in some cases the individual responding to the questionnaire was not always aware of potential language expertise within his or her institution. Despite the problems they faced in implementing the study, the investigators believe that it is generally reliable and can be useful in educational policy and planning related to language education.

The response rate was impressive: 90% of the institutions that were sent the questionnaire returned it. The investigators characterize their findings as "unsurprising." They found that most post-graduate courses for modern language teaching are designed for graduates in French and German. A few institutions had courses for graduates in Welsh, Russian and Italian. None had courses for graduates in ethnic minority community languages such as Turkish, Arabic, or any Asian language. The investigators found the situation even less encouraging for the *BEd* courses.

Despite their gloomy findings which they found unsurprising, the investigators believe that there are enough potential resources in the United Kingdom to create viable teacher education courses in ethnic minority community languages. They see potential in the people who teach courses in the teaching of English as a second language, the interest in community languages expressed by some of the respondents, the "pool of goodwill" observed in some of the responses, the need for teachers who have the skills to work in multilingual classrooms, and the native speakers of community languages who might be recruited for teacher education courses.

In the closing part of the monograph, the investigators make some thoughtful recommendations that merit serious pondering by educational planners who are responsible for shaping and implementing educational policy in multilingual societies. The most important recommendation that the investigators make is the need for the Department of Education and Science to establish a national Work Party "to develop a coordinated policy" related to multilingual education.

The most difficult yet significant task facing the multilingual Western nations such as the United States and the United Kingdom is the need to

develop a national language policy on which there is enough national consensus to gain legitimacy and acceptance among most of the citizens of the commonwealth. Both the United States and the United Kingdom have historically had implicit if not explicit monolingual language policies which perpetuated the supremacy of standard English and provided for the teaching of several Western European languages such as French and German for enrichment purposes. Non-European languages and dialects were usually viewed as neither important enough to warrant instruction in the schools nor needed to function in modernized Western societies.

The rise of the ethnic revival movements in the Western nations during the 1960s and 1970s and the increasing power and visibility of ethnolinguistic groups have caused nations such as the United States and the United Kingdom to reassess their assimilationist language policies and to implement educational programs designed to legitimize language diversity and to use ethnic languages as a medium of instruction in the schools. Bitter controversy arose in the United States when bilingual programmes demanded by ethnolinguistic groups were supported by states and the national government and implemented in local school districts. The controversy continues and is caused by the clash of the strong assimilationist ideology which still grips the United States and the pluralist ideology

endorsed by many ethnolinguistic groups who want their cultures and languages to be legitimized by being taught in the schools.

It will not be possible to conceptualize and implement sound multilingual programs in the United States until a national policy is developed that makes such programs possible. Such a policy must have strong federal government support and sufficient public support to make the policy work. A national policy toward language diversity must also be developed in the United Kingdom before the kinds of teacher education courses in community languages envisioned by Professor Craft and Dr Atkins will be possible. The attempt to develop a multilingual educational policy and to implement it will probably be as contentious in the United Kingdom as it is in the United States. The assimilationist ideal is as entrenched in the motherland as it is in its American child that rebelled. Professor Craft and Dr Atkins have produced a thoughtful and informative monograph that will help to clarify the issues in an inevitable battle that will most likely have no clear victor.

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Reviews

Education, Unemployment and the Future of Work
by A. G. Watts
Milton Keynes, U.K. 1983 Open University Press.
218p.

Unemployment hits youth especially. Unlike the 1930s, when the entire workforce was affected and youth were not singled out for special treatment or blame, today's unemployment rates are two or three times higher among young people than they are generally. Bad as things were in the 1930s the grandparents of today's youth at least shared their hard times with their elders. The cause of the present situation is variously attributed to the economic recession, structural changes in industry, demographic phenomena, women displacing youth in the

labour market or high wages pricing youth out of the market. Economists now seem agreed that the problem of high youth unemployment is likely to be with us for the foreseeable future; it is structural as well as cyclical. Including hidden unemployment, somewhere between one-quarter and one-third of school-leavers in most western countries can expect protracted periods without paid work. In some regions and for some sub-groups the rate is more than double this. Early leavers from school and poor achievers are particularly vulnerable, so are girls, blacks and children of the poor.

Research is documenting the effects of unemployment on youth. Psychologically it is associated with apathy, poor self-esteem and depression. Problem behaviours include drugs, suicide and crime. Welfare

problems embrace homelessness, social dependency and, for girls, early pregnancy. Economically, unemployment represents a drain on the welfare budget and unused productive and service capacity. The seriousness of the situation is captured in expressive phrases such as 'the lost generation' or 'the new underclass'.

Demand side solutions for youth unemployment generally involve proposals for job creation (in the public or private sector), for general economic recovery or for 'third sector' activities such as community enterprises, rural communes or co-operatives. Other labour market solutions include making room for new entrants, for example, through early retirement, job sharing, reduced migration, or incentives for one partner in a nuclear family to work on home duties.

Demand side solutions have proved generally to be refractory to policy initiatives and governments have turned to the supply side which is more amenable to manipulation. Most proposals are predicated on the assumption that the employability of potentially unemployed youth can be improved through education and training, and that there are jobs latent in the labour market which will become available when youth are made sufficiently employable. Curriculum proposals for improved employability include 1) vocational training either in school or in technical colleges or on-the-job; 2) preparation for work through work experience or careers education in schools, or through special community based programs; 3) improvement in basic education, particularly literacy and numeracy. So far as formal schooling is concerned the curriculum proposals may displace existing subjects either for all students or, more frequently, for those designated 'at risk'; or they may be added to the existing program with a consequent lengthening of the duration of schooling. An effect of the latter is to increase retention at school thus postponing the competition for the available jobs. It may also cause a small reduction in the size of the labour market depending on the proportion of each cohort which stays longer at school and the period for which entry to the labour market is delayed.

The continuing crisis (the contradiction is deliberate) of youth unemployment has quickened interest in the nature of two universal institutions, school and work, and of the connection between the two. In *Education, Unemployment and the Future of*

Work, A. G. Watts provides us with one of the best accounts yet available. In an historical review he shows how school bonds education with employment in four ways: *selection* of young people for positions in the labour market (via examination results and certificates), *occupational socialisation* whereby attitudes to work and to one's position within work are shaped, *orientation* of students to the labour market by briefing them about the world of employment, and *preparation* of students through the teaching of particular skills which will be of direct use should they become employed. Watts argues that the onset of high levels of youth employment has, paradoxically, tightened the bonds between school and work. While the prospect of unemployment has caused many students to become disenchanted with school, adult authorities have seen education and training as an instrument with which to combat the problem.

How have schools responded? Case studies which Watts conducted in three schools reveals some imaginative extensions to the formal curriculum, for example, a business being set up and run by students. Many dilemmas were also revealed by the case-studies including pupil reluctance to confront the reality of unemployment after school. One group of young people reported that 'we have unemployment rammed down our throats at home, on the television: why should we have it in school? We shouldn't have to think about it at school: school should be a nice place'.

One of the more intriguing insights is that, in seeking to respond to unemployment schools were being led to question practices which had long been due for overhaul; for example, domination of the school day by day by the timetable or the examination-driven curriculum.

Can employability be increased? According to Watts, certainly 'even among the hard core of unemployed' but, and here is the rub, because this does not increase the number of jobs, efforts at increasing employability may aggravate rather than alleviate individual's problems (p.83). Nevertheless it is the author's optimistic opinion that curriculum related to unemployment is worthwhile, not just in school, but also in post-school institutions and in special projects. A curriculum model is elaborated which has the objectives of increasing motivation and self-esteem, of developing skills for gaining employment and for surviving unemployment and of

enhancing the awareness of political and economic change.

Economists are beginning to question whether increased productivity through automated systems will necessarily lead to more employment in an expanded economy or in the service sector. The collapse of work, unthinkable until recent times, is being seriously discussed. What are the possibilities in a post-industrial society? Watts explores four scenarios — massive unemployment, massive leisure, employment through massive job creation programs, and massive creation of work roles outside the formal economy. At root these are reconceptualisations of the nature and social distribution of employment, work and leisure.

The question is whether the personal adult needs which have traditionally been provided by remunerated employment — the formation of identity and social status, the need for achievement, the need for friends, the structuring of time and the allocation of income — can be met in a society where the roles of a large number are in leisure pursuits or unpaid work, or whether unemployment must be combatted by government intervention to create jobs artificially. The scenario to be preferred is ultimately a matter of values: do we live to work or work to live?

In the meantime back to education. Each scenario implies new educational structures; each suggests profound questions for the curriculum in schools, not the least of which concerns the potential for even greater social polarisation than exists at present if there is one curriculum for those destined for employment and another for those heading for unemployment/leisure/unemployed work.

This is a stimulating book, rich in ideas, well documented (there are some 450 references) and, while dealing with intensely practical issues, it makes extensive use of insights from psychological and sociological theorists. It should be on the reading list for all teachers, for all those who teach teachers and for all those who would influence the opinions of teachers of teachers.

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Prelude to literacy — a pre-school child's encounter with picture and story. Crago, Maureen and Hugh. Southern Illinois University Press, Carbondale and Edwardsville, 1983. pp 294; typescript-text. Hardback \$16.95.

Twelve years ago Maureen and Hugh Crago, Australian psychotherapists and bookish parents with a strong commitment to children's literature, began to keep records of their daughter Anna's encounters with picture books and stories. Anna was twenty months old when the records began. The Cragos were following the examples of other attentive parents whose professional interests have marched with their observations of their offspring, especially where the concern was to see the ontogenesis of the child's *sense of story*.

From the classic account of Dorothy Neal White in *Books before Five* (1954) to the recent work of Emilia Ferreiro and Ana Teberosky, *Literacy Before Schooling* (1983) and others, there is ample evidence that the nature of narrative is well understood by children of two and a half, and sometimes earlier. From the researches of Gordon Wells and his Bristol associates it is also clear that children who have had experience of handling books have a significant advantage in school reading lessons. So parents read to children for a mixture of motives, not the least of which is to induct their child into social practices, including the reading of literature, which they think are important. Few parents, however, set themselves the task of diary-keeping and commentary in the detail revealed here.

Maureen Crago did most of the reading with her daughter and kept the diary. Hugh wrote the commentary and analysis. *Every statement she (Anna) made about almost every book she encountered during formal reading sessions* between her third and fifth birthdays was recorded. To this the parents added all the allusions to books outside the reading sessions, play interactions, conversations, spontaneous narratives and the retelling of stories seen on the (neighbour's) television. It is a very thick description, and the record is worth close attention for the quality and quantity of the data.

Longitudinal studies are notoriously hard to handle; the details tend to engulf the researcher and reader. The Cragos have divided their material into three parts. The first, called *The Listener*, gives as complete an account as possible of Anna's spontan-

eous utterances during the reading of six stories of increasing complexity: *A Lion in the Meadow*; *The Little Red Lighthouse*; *Rapunzel*; *Where the Wild Things Are*; *Finn Family Moouniutroll*; *The Story of Doctor Doolittle*. In discussing *the shape of Anna's responses* Hugh suggests that, besides asking questions on the reaction of story events to real life incidents, Anna shows how the stories, all of which are about child-adult relations in contexts of conflict or anxiety, relate to her underlying preoccupations. Clearly the parents' professional templates filter the evidence in order to focus on Anna's reactions to the affective aspects of the stories. Had they been linguists they might have chosen other details as important. As it is, they offer interesting examples of experience derived from books of the kind that Susanne Langer calls *virtual*.

Part Two, called *The Maker* relates Anna's book experiences to her play and to her own storytelling. Anna follows the narrative patterns of the traditional tales as these are the ones she hears most. Her father shows how she uses in her monologues the device of binary oppositions: *good things follow bad, doors open follow doors shut, sickness follows health quite inexorably*. Both in games and in storytelling Anna portrays characters in action which she can control.

In the third part, *Learning the Language of Art* Hugh analyses Anna's reading of pictures, her awareness of the author's style, the first signs of expressed preference and the early stages of the development of a literary sense of humour — illustration-cued amusement and textual word play — all of which are adult categories of discernment.

The evidence is clearly there, but my perverse longing is to see what has been ignored. It would be surprising if Anna had not learned the structure of the quest tale, of which she had heard so many examples. More interesting is the observation that Anna focused particularly on the human or quasi-human figures, princesses or villains *to the exclusion of much other detail in pictures and stories*. Clearly, this is an immensely valuable account, undertaken with much care and recorded in such detail as to make it worth being considered alongside comparable studies cited in the bibliography. To suggest its limitations is to run the risk of appearing both presumptuous and ungrateful. But I believe that had the Cragos attempted less they would have done more.

I am uneasy on these counts: first, as the authors honestly admit, in their *pictures of Anna in her entire cultural context* they left out its most important determinants — her parents. Anna's ways of taking from books was not *natural* response, but learned behaviour strongly modelled by her mother and father. Yet only Anna's responses are treated as evidence. For me, reading to children is a collaborative activity where the mother and the child interact with the author to whose voice on the page they both attend. More sophisticated transcription systems now available and in use have added greatly to our view of the totality of this cultural event.

Next, when the authors say that their evidence has not been available hitherto, I am shaken into awareness that it has been, but we haven't given it enough thought or attention in the light of recent studies of language development. Then, I wish the Cragos had been a little less certain of and more speculative about what they discovered, especially in the later stages of their work where, clearly, ethnographic and socio-cultural awareness clamoured to be let in, and more recent psycho-analytic insights (Lacan's, for example) seem to offer exciting challenges to traditional ways of looking.

And yet, the very effort of reading this book, (its typescript format is unusually tiring and unattractive) has made me seek to know how to write about this topic so that we can keep the essential humanity of literary experience. After all, the pleasure of reading is what it's really all about, and in very early childhood *formal reading sessions* should be fewer.

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Child Development 0-5

Roberts M., and Tamburrini J. (editors)

Holmes McDougall, Edinburgh, 1981. 328pp.

There are a great many books available on child development; what makes this one different is that it is in the format of a unitised study programme. There are several line drawings, but no photographs in the text, though an accompanying set of slides can be bought. The intended use of the book is for the tutor-led discussion group at tertiary level. The

activities involving work with children, the unit on pre-school educational provision indicates direct relevance to teacher training though the range of the material would appeal to a wider market.

The programme of study modules cover major areas in child development, viz.:

Pre-natal development (18pp)

Perceptual discrimination and the growth of sociability (18pp)

Social/cognitive and motor development (31pp)

Factors affecting early development and learning (39pp)

Representation and cognitive development (29pp)

Language development (27pp)

Social development (22pp)

Pre-school provision (28pp)

Within each module there is a series of units involving readings, activities and discussion topics. Interestingly each of these are given estimated completion timings so that the hard pressed student can plan her work (or the tutor for her!).

Taking the module *Social development* as a detailed example, there are two units, (1) The Child, the Adult and the Culture, (2) Peer group relationships. Within unit (1) there are short papers by Shaffer H. R. on 'Identification' and Robinson W. P. on 'Social class, language and socialisation'. These give a good overview of their topics, identifying differences of opinion, problems in methodology. In common with most papers in the book they read well, though in many cases the references cited are quite dated (c. 1960s). The editors' own reading list is appropriate to the publication date of 1981.

The papers are followed by a discussion guide which lists five topics. Several of these cross reference to earlier sections of the book with the intention of drawing students' attention to differences in theoretical paradigm, methodology and evidence.

At the end of the book is a large section giving assignments which students may do among themselves or with children. These are carefully structured with appropriate methodological guidelines. The great strength of the book is in the material on cognition and learning which runs as a theme throughout. For example, ideas from Piaget are skillfully presented and lead the student to gain perceptive insights. All of this is appropriately applied to a range of learning situations. Less happy are the limited contexts in which child development itself is examined.

What of pluralism of family patterns, the multicultural society and inner city decay? present day child development needs to be directly related to such issues if its study is to have any meaning and its application any effect. Although the module on pre-schol provision does explore the implications of the wider social contexts, is sufficient attention given to their causes.

I have used this book since it was published and have found it particularly useful in first year undergraduate work. Its virtues of accessibility and clarity make it popular among students too. However, like all books at this level it needs much complementing.

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Methodological Issues in Comparative Education, edited by Robert Cowen and Peter Stokes.

London. The London Association of Comparative Educationists. 1982.

This is a collection of papers delivered at the first conference of the London Association of Comparative Education (LACE). All the contributors, save one, are students, or former students, of Brian Holmes. The one other contributor is Holmes, himself, who delivered the keynote address.

There seems to be no party line in these papers, indeed some are openly critical of the problem approach invented by Holmes. And there is an openness to novel ways of conducting comparative studies. Welch, for example, talks about myths as a method, and Macsporrán explores how hermeneutics can be used. There is also a recognition of the place of mathematics (Haigh), national character (Stokes), and social science methodology (Mina). The paper by Cowens on time presents some interesting speculations that look fruitful and exciting.

One of the drawbacks to encouraging students to think independently and critically about methodology is that such activities take away from time spent in keeping up with the literature — and because it touches on, and borrows from, so many fields, the relevant literature is enormous. A number of these papers are based on works of history, social science, and education that has largely been superseded by more recent studies. Nevertheless, the *practical* worth of comparative education is probably greatest when students are encouraged to think

critically and independently about methodology. For many nations often enact educational policies and practices based upon comparisons made with those of other nations. Often, these so-called comparisons are inadequate and faulty. A methodologically sensitive and critical comparative educator can uncover these defects, as demonstrated clearly in the paper by Mattheou.

The paper I found of most interest is one that seems out of place in this collection. David Turner's analysis of Karl Popper's philosophy has no direct bearing on comparative education. It does, however, disclose how the study of comparative education can become an exciting intellectual adventure. I disagree with Turner's reading of Popper, and that's what intellectual adventure is all about.

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Video: The Educational Challenge, by Robin Moss.
Croom, Helm. London, 1983.

If you have an interest in how technology is transforming education, you will enjoy this book. The author has set forth the history of technology in education in England, with particular emphasis on the Open University. The undercurrent of the book is, to my mind, the struggle between those who feel that technology will transform learning, and those who feel that it detracts from traditional teaching, from the point of view of someone who obviously has had experience and been a bit bruised in his encounters with academic traditionalists.

My copy of the book is marked and pages turned on what I felt to be gems, interesting quotes, and pungent observations, some of which I would like to share:

— On the traditional lecture form of higher education, Robin Moss comments: *The average amount of information noted is 11% of that actually delivered... and 80% forgotten in a week.*

— On the purpose of education: *Education is a matter of helping people to see things for themselves, not filling them full of information.*

— A personal anecdote about teaching a class of early leavers that responded to none of the usual rewards, but came alive when he and the students collaborated on television programs for job inter-

views.

— Moss includes a quote from Gosling that stretches the mind: *All the way from a man on foot to a modern jet aircraft represents only about two orders of magnitude change in speed of transportation... which (took place over many hundreds of years). In microelectronics we have a three orders of magnitude of change taking place over only a decade. There has never been a larger or faster technological revolution in the history of mankind and what we are facing now has justly been compared with the invention of the wheel or the discovery of fire.*

— Another memorable quote, this time from Carey: *The analogy between computers and motor cars is instructive in considering the scale of change: if both industries had developed at the same rate over the past thirty years or so, today a Rolls Royce would cost £1, it would do 3,000,000 miles to the gallon, and it would deliver enough power to drive an ocean liner and, if it had been miniaturized, you could get about 500 on your thumbnail.*

Moss makes several important points about the shape of the video educational system that he feels is going to emerge and about which he may be quite right. One is a need to develop an indexing system that will allow us to retrieve frames and pictures from video the way we can now retrieve pages of printed text. He sees a video revolution as a challenge to traditional forms of education, and argues that the emphasis should shift away from the banking of knowledge, which he sees as the traditional form of education, and towards the acquisition of skills. He feels video is the great opportunity for open learning, in which learning will be available to any person, in any stage of schooling, any time, at any place, and in any subject.

It is a grand conception of what education could be for all kinds of students, both young and old. It is an exciting book, one that will leave you with a quote or a paragraph that you will remember, unlike those notes taken in lectures.

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